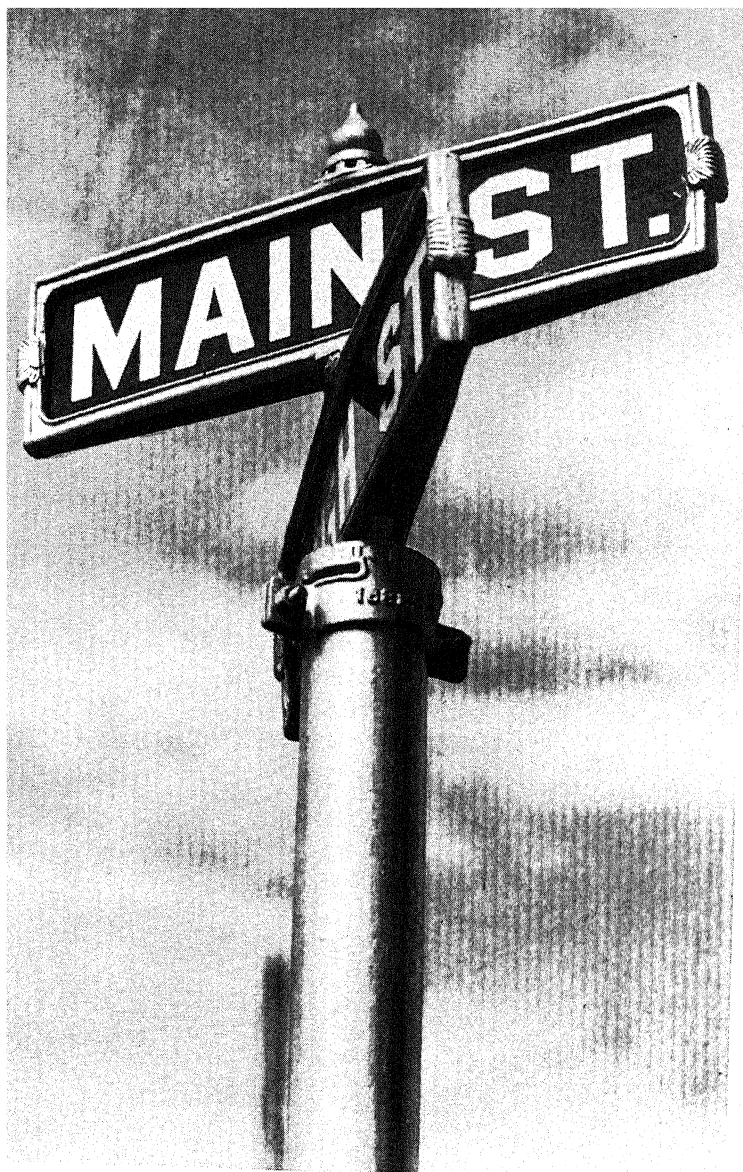


COMMUNITY LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY



Photograph by Ewing Gallowsay

COMMUNITY LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY

EDITED BY

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Vice-President

National Congress of Parents and Teachers



1942

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PREFACE

THIS BOOK is the third of a series of publications issued by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers dealing with the three major areas in which the organization finds expression for its efforts in behalf of children and youth—the home, the school, and the community. The two previous publications are *Our Homes* and *Schools for Democracy*. The former was edited by Ada Hart Arlitt, Ph.D., professor and head of the department of child care and training, University of Cincinnati. *Schools for Democracy* was compiled by Charl Ormond Williams, past president and director of field service, of the National Education Association, and Frank W. Hubbard, director of the research division, also of the National Education Association. Added impetus was given to the preparation of the third book, *Community Life in a Democracy*, by the interest focused on the community and on the public agencies and institutions dealing with the care and protection of children that resulted from the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers was one of the organizations participating in the Conference. It has been the consistent policy of this organization to work with steadfast perseverance at the task for which it was originally constituted and is still uniquely suited, namely, the care and protection and education of children. To this work it has adhered with the most loyal devotion, never permitting any temporary issue or unexpected emergency to divert its effort elsewhere. Accordingly, the Congress unhesitatingly accepted the responsibility of bringing the findings of the Conference to the two million six hundred and eighty-five thousand members of 28,000 local parent-teacher associations in all the states of the Union and in the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Porto Rico. As a means to this end, Mrs. William Kletzer, national president, selected as the theme of her administration "The Child in His Community." The publications of the National Congress during this period, as well as the pro-

grams and activities of the local parent-teacher associations, have been devoted largely to the development of this topic. This book supplies a timely development and rounding out of the theme of the administration.

Not only is the parent-teacher association acutely aware of the importance of the *community* at this time, but recent world events have made its members conscious of the need for understanding, interpreting, and applying the basic principles of *democracy*. This latest publication, therefore, deals with the two major interests of the organization at the moment—democracy and the community.

There have been many recent publications in both of these fields. Much of the material in these publications, however, has been too theoretical for the use of the members of local parent-teacher associations. Hence, every effort has been put forth to make the material presented in this book extremely practical. There is still too great a gap between democracy in theory and democracy as it is actually practiced in our daily lives. These inconsistencies between the ideal and the real are closely examined in this volume in an endeavor to help people in all walks of life and in all communities to understand and practice the broad ideals of life in a democracy. Surely, a way of life that is worth fighting for with all the resources of the nation and with all the sacrifices that are involved is worth conserving and practicing on the home front. When our young men return from the battlefields they must find the values for which they have been fighting awaiting them in their own home communities. It is the task of the parent-teacher association to create a community atmosphere in which these values are immediately apparent and can find their natural growth and fulfillment. This task begins with the individual community. Citizens of a democracy must carry on where they are, and "where they are" is the local community in which they live.

The war effort has made Americans community-conscious. The community instinct that was so necessary in pioneer days under the stress of common hardships, common anxiety, and the

need for a common effort is already drawing neighbors together in a unity of interest and purpose that will form a sound foundation for the community of tomorrow if these values can be conserved and strengthened. It is hoped that *Community Life in a Democracy* will serve as a guide in this endeavor. Although designed as a guide to organized parent-teacher cooperation, it covers the whole field of community improvement and will therefore be of interest to psychologists, sociologists, educators, social workers, and all other community-minded citizens.

The book is the result of many months of careful planning on the part of parent-teacher leaders; it is the product of the expert thinking of a score of eminent authorities in community health, education, safety, and welfare. Consideration has been given to variations in the community pattern, and the material is suitable for both rural and urban areas. It is hoped that the volume will be an invaluable guide for those who are deeply concerned that democracy be made to work in the practical daily life of the community.

The editor would like to express appreciation to the contributors who so generously gave of their time and their talent to make this volume possible. Thanks in large measure are due to Eva H. Grant, editor of the *National Parent-Teacher*, who served as consultant. All concerned with the preparation of this volume have demonstrated the ideals of unity of purpose, understanding, mutual good will, and willing cooperation which form the groundwork for the thesis of this book, *Community Life in a Democracy*.

June 1942

FLORENCE C. BINGHAM
Editor

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CHAPTER I

A CLOSE-UP OF MODERN MAIN STREET

ERNEST W. BURGESS

Ernest W. Burgess, professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, is also well known for his outstanding contributions as secretary of the Chicago Area Project (an organization sponsoring a neighborhood program for the treatment and prevention of juvenile delinquency). He is president of the National Conference on Family Relations and co-author of *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage*.

COMMUNITIES may differ widely in area, in population, and in function, but they always have one common characteristic. The attribute that distinguishes a community—whether it be a neighborhood, a rural area, a town, a small city, a metropolitan area, a region, a nation, or a world community—is the fact that it comprises people residing in the same geographical area and sharing common interests because they are living together. The community may, therefore, be defined as a group of persons living in a definite geographical area and sharing common interests. This means that a community maintains one or more institutions, such as the school, the church, the store, and the local government. It also means that mutuality of interests is the basis for the unity of its people. People find that there are many activities which they can do much better together than separately, and some that can only be done cooperatively.

COMMUNITIES—NEIGHBORHOOD TO WORLD

The smallest geographical area that can be called a community is the neighborhood. The neighborhood may be defined as a group of families living close enough to each other to be able to function as neighbors.

Neighborhoods may be classified as rural and urban. The United States Census Bureau divides the country into urban areas, or incorporated areas with 2,500 or more persons, and rural

areas with a population of less than 2,500. The Census Bureau also divides rural areas into farm and nonfarm areas. Farm areas exclude both incorporated and nonincorporated towns and villages.

The old-time rural neighborhood maintained the one-room country schoolhouse and occasionally a church; generally, however, two or more rural neighborhoods united to support a church. This rural neighborhood of the past had its boundaries determined by the radius of the horse and buggy. The coming of the automobile increased the radius of movement of farmers, undermined the old rural neighborhood, with its one-room, one-teacher school, and led to the establishment of the consolidated school. Thousands of community churches closed down. The result is that the modern rural neighborhood in the United States is much larger than was its old-time predecessor.

The village with its surrounding farm area is now the typical rural neighborhood. It has a consolidated school, one or more churches, a parent-teacher association, a motion picture theater, a post office, and a store.

The village, as it grows into a town, divides into two or more neighborhoods. This division begins just as soon as there arrives a definite recognition of economic and social differences between the people living in different sections of the town. People begin to speak of families living "across the railroad tracks" or "beyond the river" or "on that side of the town." The division into neighborhoods becomes complete when the town is large enough for two or more elementary schools or when there are churches located in different sections of the town. In the large city there are scores and hundreds of neighborhoods. For practical purposes the boundary of each elementary school district may be taken as approximately those of the city neighborhood.

The local community is made up of a group of neighborhoods. A town is a local community. As the town grows into a city, it divides into a number of local communities. A small city is made up of two or more local communities. A town or a local community within a city has a trading center, with stores selling different kinds of goods, its elementary school (and sometimes its own

high school), churches, playgrounds, and recreation centers. Business and industrial enterprises in the local community give employment to a majority or a considerable number of its inhabitants.

The metropolitan region has as its center a large city like New York, Chicago, or San Francisco. Its area goes out beyond the municipal boundaries to include suburban cities, towns, and villages. The limits of the metropolitan region extend as far as the commuters' zone, that is, the distance that a man goes into the metropolis to work, his wife to shop, or both to attend the theater or the opera.

The great metropolitan city divides into a large number of local communities that are highly differentiated from one another. Many of these districts are picturesque, like Hobohemia at the city's center, inhabited by homeless men; Bohemia, a rooming-house district where artists and pseudo-artists congregate; immigrant colonies like the Ghetto, Greek town, Little Sicily, Chinatown, or the Black Belt; and the Gold Coast, inhabited by the wealthy. Others are more prosaic—industrial communities where workingmen reside; apartment-house areas; nondescript rooming-house districts; and residential suburbs. The point is that in the large city there is marked segregation of the rich, the well-to-do, and the poor, as well as of the different national and racial groups, each of which tends to find an area of its own, set off from the rest of the city. At the same time, these segregated districts never stay put. People are continually desirous of moving into a better residential neighborhood. Accordingly, the best residential districts of thirty or forty years ago may be the slums of today.

The state, the nation, and the world are also communities. The nation can be regarded as a great cooperative enterprise in which business men, employees, farmers, professional people, housewives, and others are working together to provide the commodities and services which as consumers we all need. Under our system of free enterprise the government intervenes only in the interest of the general welfare, as in protecting us against foreign enemies and insurrection; in regulating conflicts between employer and

employees; in insuring social security against accident, unemployment, and old age; in providing relief for those facing starvation and destitution; and in making possible Federal housing for families of low income.

The world is the great inclusive community. It has actually become one economically, as can be seen by our dependence on our trade with other nations for many commodities we regard as indispensable—for example, coffee, tea, sugar, rubber, or tin.

PROBLEMS THAT CHALLENGE THE COMMUNITY

The problem common to all community life arises when the interests of one individual or group of individuals are placed ahead of the common good. But how can the community develop the solidarity and morale necessary to cope with its problems? Neighborhood spirit is high when all the families are working together upon a common objective. In the local community and town the cooperation of the various civic, social, and welfare organizations is the essential condition for the solution of its problems. Our large cities and metropolitan regions need united action by their many diversified racial, national, and economic groups to cope successfully with the many inimical conditions of modern urban life. Our nation, as it faces the problems of war and of reconstruction after the war, must look to a revival of the pioneer American spirit that arose to meet and solve new situations and problems. The success of the effort to abolish war in the future hinges upon the willingness of the peoples of the earth to place the interests of humanity above narrower national interests.

Each type of community has its own specific problems. The problems of the neighborhood center around the family, namely those of family living, parent-child relationship, the play group, the school, and the church; in short, all the vital factors affecting the development of the child's personality.

The local community faces problems that ultimately impinge on family and child welfare, such as sickness, poverty, bad housing, malnutrition, physical and mental defects, inadequate recreation, juvenile delinquency, and adult crime.

The small city is confronted by the same social problems as the local community, except that they are likely to be intensified and more difficult to solve.

The metropolitan community has problems that grow out of its very size and the complexity of its population, such as race conflicts, pressure of nationality groups, Americanization, corruption and graft, machine rule, and election frauds. The basic problem inheres in the fact that people do not know "how the other half lives." There is little or no common understanding between people who reside on the Gold Coast and those who live in the slums, or between the "best" families whose ancestors came over in the Mayflower and the immigrant who arrived by steerage.

The two outstanding problems confronting the United States today are how to win the war and how to win the peace. The chief problem of peacetime is the economic state of that one-third of the population which lacks adequate food, clothing, and shelter.

The great problem of the world community is to find a way by which the nations of the world can live peacefully together.

THE P.T.A. IN COMMUNITY SERVICE

The local parent-teacher association is primarily a neighborhood organization. It has three fundamental purposes: (1) enhancement of family living; (2) the development of the child in his emotions, intellect and character; and (3) the cooperation of parents and teachers in promoting the education and personality development of children and youth. This means that the families in the school districts should actually be a group of friends and neighbors. The work of the association will be facilitated if the boundaries of the school district conform to those of a natural neighborhood.

The members of the parent-teacher association might well ask to what extent the school district follows neighborhood boundaries. Ideally, traffic routes should run around and not through a neighborhood. Progressive city planners, in laying out new housing projects, place the elementary school in the center of the new district; allow no through streets within the neighborhood but route them around it; and permit no business places inside the

neighborhood, but only at certain points upon the through streets bounding it.

No local association is likely to be as effective as it might be if its membership does not adequately represent all the children in the school. The facts should be determined, and if the association is found to be unrepresentative, it should find out why this is the case and what steps may be taken to remedy the situation.

But the work of the parent-teacher association is not confined to the neighborhood. It reaches out to the local community, into the small city, and throughout the metropolitan region and the nation. A committee made up of representatives from each of the neighborhoods falling within a local community might make a preliminary survey of the local community. The findings could be presented graphically by getting a large base map, free from details other than the street pattern, and plotting upon it by means of differently colored symbols the different institutions, agencies, and other enterprises significant for child life in the community. For example, a cross might represent a church; an arched door, a school; a stereopticon, a motion picture; billiard balls and a cue, a pool room; a slipper, a dance hall. Parks and vacant lots available for recreation might be colored appropriately. The map should be supplemented by a card catalog of the names and addresses of organizations and of their officers. Some special maps might also be prepared showing the distribution of cases of juvenile delinquency, truancy from school, and infant mortality.

Understanding of community problems by the members of the association can be increased by devoting one or more meetings a year to their consideration. Invitations to speak can be given to representatives of welfare agencies, such as the health department, the juvenile court, the family welfare agencies, and the infant welfare society. The association can find out whether a local community council exists to deal with community problems, how effective it is, and what steps should be taken to organize or re-energize its work.

The problems of the metropolitan community are deep-rooted and complicated. Many of them, such as those of race relations, na-

tionality differences, and conflicts between economic groups, are involved with deep-laid prejudices. Their solution demands knowledge, understanding, and sympathy. Certain books, like E. F. Frazier's *The Negro in the United States*, R. E. Park and H. A. Miller's *Old World Traits Transplanted*, and Louis Adamic's *From Many Lands* will be helpful in giving the historical background and present problems of the racial and immigrant groups that make up so large a part of our urban population.

Too often representatives of these groups are not invited to participate in organizations for community welfare, or, if invited, they feel as if they were outsiders and drop out. This is unfortunate, because they could be the source of better understanding between their groups and the Americans of native ancestry.

One meeting each year of local associations might have as its subject "The Cultural Heritage of the United States," with emphasis upon the distinctive contributions of the different races and nationalities to our common way of life and with recognition of the distinguished services to our country of men and women of the many different groups in our population.

Small-city or metropolitan parent-teacher associations have a real opportunity to take the leadership in the movement toward knowing "one's own city." People in the city too often are acquainted with only two districts: the neighborhood in which they live and the downtown shopping center. All the remainder of the city is an unknown land. Many of our problems would be much easier of solution if the people of the different neighborhoods of the city knew more of each other and of the conditions under which each group lives. They would then understand better the interdependence of communities, of cities upon rural neighborhoods for food, of the farmer upon the industrial metropolis for tractors and manufactured goods. They would appreciate more fully the significance of the specialized function of the different communities of the metropolitan region: the truck gardens, golf clubs, forest preserves, and cemeteries at its periphery; the model residential suburb with its commuting privilege combining the urban and rural advantages favorable for the rearing of children;

the apartment-house areas of clerical workers, with rapid transit downtown; the industrial residential district in close proximity to work in the factory; the rooming-house regions for the newcomer to the city, often within walking distance of downtown; and the cheap living quarters of Hobohemia for the casual worker.

One project to be undertaken by a metropolitan or small-city parent-teacher council is the study of the distribution and efficiency of local parent-teacher associations. It is important first to find out where there are no associations or only weak and struggling ones. These are likely to be the communities where the families are poor, foreign-born, or of immigrant origin, and of little or limited education.

These are the neighborhoods that are in the greatest need of the work of the parent-teacher association. They are the ones in which the teachers in the local schools generally reside farthest away, in the better residential districts. Teachers sometimes regard appointment to these schools as a demotion. Problems of discipline are not infrequently very difficult. Local leadership seems absent and the people indifferent.

Yet the situation is not as hopeless as it might appear. Parents are never indifferent to the welfare of their children. Leadership always exists where there are people. The problem is to make the right contacts in a sympathetic way. The philosophy and methods of the parent-teacher association may be unfamiliar and even strange to persons in these neighborhoods and may have to be adapted to local conditions.

In dealing with problems of peacetime as well as those of war the parent-teacher association can be of basic help. In a democracy the solution of great national problems requires the intelligent participation of every citizen. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has a membership of more than two and two-thirds million active and intelligent men and women interested in the welfare of children and youth. As citizens with more than average knowledge of the facts about social and economic conditions, they have an influence all out of proportion to their numbers.

The publications of the National Congress have already made

valuable contributions to the education of its members. The point stressed here is the significance of recognizing the dynamic interrelation between what takes place in Washington, D. C., with what occurs in every neighborhood. The nation is not sound or strong unless neighborhood and family life are well organized and wholesome. The provision for recreation in the neighborhood or the conversion of a delinquent gang into a law-abiding boys' club helps to strengthen the national fabric just as old age insurance and assistance to mothers with dependent children through joint Federal and state action contribute to the welfare of the family, the neighborhood, and the local community.

A sound principle for parent-teacher associations of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is to include as part of their sphere of activity the consideration of all problems that have a direct bearing upon the home, the school, and the welfare of children and youth. The question of securing good housing is of paramount importance for family welfare, but housing projects should be organized upon the neighborhood pattern in order to provide for wholesome community and family life. Economic security is needed as a basis for cultivating the cultural values of family relations that are important in personality development. Adequate nutrition is necessary for physical and mental efficiency.

NEW EYES FOR A NEW WORLD

The total war effort of the United States is now putting to the acid test the vitality and the efficiency of every institution and every organization in the country. It is subjecting our democratic way of life to the strain and stress of the decisive conflict with autocratic and totalitarian nations.

There is need to strengthen the working efficiency of the home and the school, particularly in their community relationships. Millions of young men are leaving the home environment to serve in the armed forces. Women who never worked outside the home before will enter industry to take the place of men who are fighting for their country. The absence from the family of the father or the older brother and for several hours a day of the working

mother or older sister will diminish the usual degree of family guidance of the young son and daughter. The experience of countries at war is that, after several months of participation, juvenile delinquency begins to increase. Parent-teacher associations should take early measures to prevent any rise in child crime by providing for more supervised recreation and other means of protecting children and youth and of directing their activities into wholesome channels.

Winning the peace involves the problem of securing a world order that will abolish war as a method of settling disputes between nations. The United States will have a leading place at the peace table. Our representatives should express the considered judgment of the American people upon the best plan of world organization. Our effort in World War I failed because the people of the United States were not prepared to take a position of leadership in world affairs. That mistake should not be repeated after this war.

Teachers and parents, then, as citizens of their world community, should extend and amplify their efforts toward a more general understanding of the causes of war and the conditions necessary to secure permanent peace. Psychologists and sociologists have shown that wars are not inevitable. War, like dueling, is a pattern of behavior that was once general but has gone out of fashion in the United States. Other means than fighting can be found to settle conflicts between nations, just as they have been found to settle disputes between gentlemen.

In this chapter we have considered the different types of communities, from the neighborhood to the world. Time was when the average citizen lived almost his whole life in the little world of his neighborhood. But the daily paper, the newsreel, and the radio have brought the whole wide world into the neighborhood, the school, and the home. This great extension of communication makes it possible for the democratic processes that had their birth in the New England town meeting to function at present for a nation of 130,000,000 inhabitants and, we confidently expect, in the fullness of time for all the peoples of the world.

CHAPTER II

THE NEW BIRTH OF COMMUNITY CONSCIOUSNESS

LOUIS WIRTH

Louis Wirth, a sociologist of distinction, is professor of sociology and associate dean of the Division of the Social Sciences at the University of Chicago. He serves as consultant to the National Resources Planning Board and is associate editor of the *American Journal of Sociology*. A prolific author in his field, he contributes to many national journals and has published a number of important books.

IN THE wake of the most severe depression in our history has come the most gigantic of all wars. Scarcely had the communities of America recoiled from the impact of the economic paralysis of the 'thirties when the call for total war mobilization sounded.

It would be idle to minimize the ravages of virtually a decade of depression. Nation-wide mass unemployment, coupled with the wiping out of savings, reduced hitherto secure and comfortable families to the bare subsistence level or below it. The strain under which local associations, agencies, institutions, and government had to labor to maintain the basic functions and indispensable services for the preservation of orderly and wholesome community life often reached the breaking point. Cynicism, despair, and even loss of faith in the democratic process were not uncommon.

The anxieties and privations imposed by adversity upon millions of individuals and families, however, represent only one side of the depression balance sheet. On the credit side there must be entered a rekindled sensitivity on the part of a substantial proportion of the inhabitants of every community to the conditions of life and the problems of their neighbors, and a more resolute assumption by the community of public responsibility for the welfare of all of its members. While some of the community spirit

reminiscent of the frontier has been recaptured and some of the homely mutual aid and self-help institutions and associations of an earlier day have been revitalized, it should also be noted that the depression exploded the hoary myth of local self-sufficiency.

A greatly increased demand for public services, especially unemployment relief, coupled with declining public revenues, led many communities throughout the country to the verge of bankruptcy. It was only through the use of Federal credit and the organization of emergency programs of relief, work relief, and public works that many of our communities were enabled to maintain a semblance of civilized, orderly existence. If the scars of the depression years are no more visible than they are on our youth, our aged, and our adult population, it is because our Government acted when no one else could. And if many communities throughout the land can point today to their modern schools, libraries, recreational and cultural facilities, and health and welfare institutions, it is only because, despite shortsighted opposition from many quarters, the Federal Government insisted upon carrying out a nation-wide program of relief and reconstruction.

Only a minority would ever wish us to go back to where we were in 1933 or even in 1929. Some of the advances we have made during the years of economic adversity are on the way to becoming permanent gains—among them our recognition of the need for equalization of educational opportunity; for protection of childhood and youth; for minimum standards of housing, health, and welfare for all our people, for public assurance of the security of savings; and for minimum wages, maximum hours, and the right to bargain collectively. As a result, our American communities face the call to war with greater unity, health, productive power, and understanding of what they are fighting for and against than they could possibly have had otherwise.

WAR AND THE CHANGES OF WAR

No parents would voluntarily wish their children to live in the atmosphere of war. Since war has been forced upon us, however, it is the responsibility of parents and teachers and all enlightened

members of the community to see to it that the devastating effects of war shall fall as lightly as is humanly possible upon those whose formative years must be lived under such adverse circumstances. We cannot completely insulate our children against the horrors entailed by war. The radio, the newspaper, and the motion picture will make that impossible, even if in the school, the home, and the neighborhood we attempt to shield them against the privation, anxiety, hate, and brutality that go with war. Perhaps the endurance, the courage, the heroism, the comradeship, the fellow feeling, the equalization of sacrifice, and the sense of national solidarity and interdependence that war can also breed will be some compensation for its undesirable aspects.

Considering the abundance of our resources, there should be no need for any child, youth, or adult in any of our American communities to be exposed to serious deprivation of food, clothing, or shelter, although we may have to give up the luxuries of a peacetime world, accept substitute commodities, and streamline our ways of living. This requires, however, that we sustain and strengthen the community functions developed during the depression, such as the serving of school lunches, the distribution of surplus commodities, and the securing of adequate relief and care for dependents. It requires also that we shall not, under the pretext of war necessity, allow our systems of public welfare and social security to be undermined. The war will no doubt call for the expansion of old and the invention of new means to control prices, to prevent profiteering, and to insure equitable distribution of scarce products. These efforts, whatever may be the governmental controls resorted to, require the continuous watchfulness and support of organized community opinion and pressure. In this necessity no organization has a more direct interest than has the parent-teacher association.

Recent studies have shown that even before the war, despite their wealth and variety of resources, the American people were far from enjoying an adequate diet. This was due in part to inadequate income and in part to ignorance. It would be too much to expect that we should overcome these deficiencies in wartime.

But war, by acquainting us with the medical records of our selectees, who constitute a cross section of our people, may call the attention of all to the legacy of past shortsightedness and injustice, which, we now find, it is in the interest of the whole community to remedy.

At no time in our history have our American communities had so favorable an opportunity to look at themselves in the mirror of objective investigation. The Real Property Inventories conducted by the Federal Government from 1934 on in several hundred cities and in rural areas have shown us that a large proportion of our people live in slums and are compelled to accept housing which, by even the most modest standards, is unfit for human habitation and which breeds disease, juvenile delinquency, and community disorganization.

The investigations of the American Youth Commission and other bodies have led us to see that the children and young people of great sections of our country are far from enjoying educational opportunities equal to those afforded the children of more favored areas. They show, further, that even where there are adequate school facilities and teachers the conditions of family and community life are such as to make it impossible for a large proportion of young people to take advantage of the formal educational opportunities that are offered. Particularly striking are the inferior educational opportunities offered to the children of large sections of the South, especially the Negroes.

Nothing has demonstrated more clearly the inadequate preparation of our youth for a vocation and for making a living than the difficulties encountered in recruiting trained workers for war industries. The trend of industry during the last thirty years has been toward requiring a large increase in the number of clerical workers and the professions, a moderate increase in the proportion of semi-skilled and (to a lesser degree) skilled workers, and a decrease in the unskilled group. Especially striking have been the vocational opportunities opened to women. But the prospect that enterprising young people will establish themselves in businesses of their own has declined sharply. More and more, employment with large

corporate enterprises or with the Government has become the goal of young persons seeking a career. Although the schools in some communities have responded to these trends, and although such agencies as the National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the United States Employment Service have done much to deal with the educational and vocational problems of youth, it remains for the parents, the educational leaders, and the organized citizens of the individual community to redirect their educational institutions and practices to meet the new situation presented by the changing economic structure of our modern society.

The shortening and, in many instances (particularly in industries using automatic or semiautomatic machines), the virtual disappearance of apprenticeship has also significantly altered the role of the school in relation to preparation for life. We have witnessed, especially during the last decade, the rapid organization of labor in these semiskilled fields, in the unskilled fields, and even in the "white collar" occupations. The likely consequence of this is more effective collective bargaining and wider distribution of the national income. It is interesting to note that the proportion of high school graduates working in industry has been increasing rapidly. Although this may have lowered somewhat the prestige formerly attaching to a high school education, it will raise the prestige of the industrial worker and will tend to democratize American community life.

One of the most striking changes in the structure of the American community in recent years is the declining rate of increase in population. The lowered birth rate and the virtual cessation of immigration from abroad have spelled the end of a long and uninterrupted period of rapid community growth. Some of our cities, even some of the largest, are already showing actual decline in numbers, and many more are approaching a stationary population. While to many this means the end of speculative profits, others see in it an opportunity to put the community household in order and to plan for the orderly development of community resources. It is significant to note that, whereas in the past much governmental attention

was lavished upon rural living, it was not until 1935 that the Federal Government undertook its first official inquiry into the state of our urban communities. If the results of this investigation by the National Resources Planning Board are taken to heart by the communities of America, we should witness in the years to come a much more widespread, serious, and intelligent interest in continuous community planning. This effort, which amounts to utilizing such scientific and technical knowledge as we now have in the task of making our communities livable and developing their maximum potentialities, requires, if it is to be effective, the sympathetic understanding of community problems by all civic-minded citizens; the subordination of vested interests to the welfare and improvement of the community as a whole, the formulation of attainable community goals; and close collaboration between the organized laymen and competent experts.

It is becoming increasingly recognized that no segmental community interest can in the long run be realized without detriment to other interests unless it is considered as part of the whole round of community life. Those who would improve the educational activities of their community must therefore be prepared to deal with all the other complex phases of community life with which education is intertwined. Among these are government, taxation, vocational opportunities, industrial location, health, welfare, incomes and standards of living, birth and death rates, movement of residential areas, and race relations. Otherwise those who seek to promote the interests of youth may inadvertently undermine these interests in the long run.

The changing age composition of the American community is of especial significance for the prospects of children and youth. The declining size of the family is already making itself felt in reduced enrollment even in the upper grades of the elementary schools. It may have to be met with a rearrangement of educational facilities and budgets. The reduction in number of pupils should make possible an improvement in the quality of education. Parent-teacher groups must be on guard, however, lest this decline in numbers be regarded as a pretext for curtailing school budgets in-

stead of an opportunity to broaden the scope and enrich the quality of education for youth and adults alike. Although the proportion of the aged in the community has been increasing as the ratio of children has declined, the former does not constitute a disproportionately greater total burden upon the community, since, through the recently instituted social security measures, a large share of the maintenance of the aged is now the responsibility of the Federal Government. Indeed, the provisions of the Social Security Act, if extended to those classes of the population not now covered and if broadened to include adequate health services, should go a long way to enhance the general security of our people and to prevent many of the hazards and acute social problems that have in the past afflicted our local communities. Parent-teacher groups should be eternally vigilant to insure that these social gains, so painfully achieved during the years of depression, are not lost during the stress of war, for they constitute a genuine realization of the substance of democracy and are a significant factor in the maintenance of community and national morale.

Of considerable significance to most of our large urban communities is the trend toward decentralization. The suburbs have continued to gain at the expense of the central cities. As a result, the areas of deterioration at the cores of our cities have widened, accompanied by blight, decline in real estate values, and increase in tax delinquency. The vacuum thus created in the hearts of cities by the flight of people of wealth and influence to the outer edges of town and to the suburbs has made obsolete many of the public facilities near the centers of our cities and deprived the cities of some of their former or potential civic leaders.

The declining taxable property in the face of constant or greater costs and more acute social problems constitutes one of the chronic local concerns. Flight from the city, made possible by modern transportation, has been accentuated by the lower costs and more adequate facilities for family living in the suburbs and by the progressive civic and physical decay of the central cities, which has even led some Government housing and lending agencies to regard vast sections of central cities as poor investment risks.

Through large-scale planning and redevelopment some metropolitan communities have been able to check the rate of decline, and many cities have, through Federal aid, been able to reclaim some of their worst slums for parks, playgrounds, and modern housing projects. The disastrous consequences of the decay of our urban communities, however, can be dealt with adequately only if it is recognized that a city as a social and economic entity does not stop at its political boundaries and if the central city and its suburban fringes are treated as one metropolitan region, with governmental controls appropriate to deal with region-wide problems. Unless suburbanites recognize that they belong to the city on whose economic resources they subsist and whose cultural and physical advantages they enjoy, they may find that in the long run their idyllic refuge will be deprived of its economic base and be engulfed by the tide of the city's problems.

THE SHIFTING COMMUNITY SCENE

The war has tremendously accelerated the tempo of life of most American communities. Old trends have been halted or reversed, and new problems of great gravity and urgency have suddenly appeared to challenge our attention. Where formerly there were large-scale unemployment and industrial, commercial, and agricultural stagnation, we now find a scarcity of labor and feverish efforts to expand production. Towns that were declining in population have suddenly taken on the character of boom towns. In many hitherto rural areas the coming of war industries has uprooted people from the farms and turned them into commuters flocking to the new munitions factories twenty-five or even fifty miles distant.

In some areas new giant war industries or army cantonments have been responsible for the creation of new cities, which have telescoped into a few weeks the growth that in other centers was spread over several decades or even centuries. Dormant villages, towns, and cities have taken on a quickened pace. The money income of many families has increased. In not a few areas speculative booms reminiscent of the Gold Rush days have developed. In short,

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America at war presents a picture of a sleeping giant suddenly awakened.

It was to be expected that the sudden transition from depression to war should present those who are concerned both about the nation's war effort and the welfare of the people with many acute local problems. One of these problems is that of providing housing and living accommodations for the new industrial workers and their families, many of whom are strangers to the older settlers and an increasing proportion of whom are unattached persons and young women. Another serious problem is that of providing expanded facilities in the form of such public utilities as water, sewers, streets, and sanitary facilities. Schools, churches, and hospitals have had to be either enormously expanded or created anew. In many instances communities have even been forced to take the first steps to organize local governments in order to acquire police and taxing powers and to control what would otherwise have been a chaotic boom by means of zoning ordinances, building codes, and planning measures.

Since time is of the essence in America's war effort, the usual opportunity to plan in advance, to deliberate calmly, and to consider carefully the implications and repercussions of emergency measures does not exist. Instead of preventing many of the undesirable consequences of too hasty action, therefore, we may have to be content with taking remedial measures to mitigate the most flagrant and disastrous consequences of mobilizing communities for total war.

It was to be expected, too, that the gathering of such large and heterogeneous masses of people into dense communities would result in many serious stresses and strains and community conflicts, both racial and economic. In not a few communities these conflicts have been smoldering, awaiting only a dramatic event to burst out in open violence, such as race riots or industrial warfare.

The temporary nature of many defense communities, especially of defense housing, is likely to have serious long-range consequences in the character of communities—consequences that should even now challenge the thoughtful consideration of the

organized citizenry. A number of older communities find themselves, as a result of the depression years, with empty treasuries, confronting the need for staggering expenditures. The new communities are attempting to function as democratic bodies without any traditions, and the old communities are attempting to maintain democratic processes in the face of many newcomers who do not share the traditions of the old settlers. Under such circumstances misunderstanding, a certain degree of disorder, prejudice, community disagreements, and even open conflict will be difficult to avoid.

The emergency agencies of the Government in the field of housing, planning, health, education, welfare, and civilian defense have attempted to do what was possible to avoid some of the most flagrant predictable evils arising out of the feverish activity incident to America's going to war. But they alone will not be able to prevent or to deal with the many and varied problems of community life. They need the continuous collaboration, stimulation, and guidance of the existing community organizations to prevent gross inefficiency and breakdown.

Under the unifying influence of the patriotic motive that pervades the American people a new feeling of social solidarity is developing. The civilian defense activities, through their block meetings and other cooperative efforts, are in many communities for the first time making neighbors out of "nigh-dwellers." Even in our great cities people who have been strangers to one another while living in adjoining apartments are for the first time making one another's acquaintance. Perhaps the war, like other crises in collective life, may bring to light further sources of community solidarity, mutual aid, and strength, which in the postwar period may be used for the building of a more genuine democratic order than we have known since the days of the American frontier.

THE MEANING OF ALL-OUT WAR

The present world war is unique in that it is a total war with at least three fronts: the far-flung battle front proper, extending to all seas and all continents; the production front on the farms, in

the mines, in the mills, in the factories, and in the workshops; and the civilian front, comprising the homes, the agencies, the associations, the institutions, and the communities. A breakdown in any of these three would spell disaster for our country and for civilization.

To maintain the civilian front intact under the stress of war requires maintenance of the well-being of our whole people—men, women, and children, not merely those who sleep under our family roof, who live in our block or belong to our social set, but of all citizens.

It requires, secondly, that we should know where we in each of our communities stand and how far we still are from a full realization of minimum standards of living, health, education, housing, cultural opportunities, and democracy. It requires further that we strive by all legitimate means consistent with our will to victory to maintain the gains made and to expand them wherever possible toward a fuller realization of the good life in a democracy.

To fight successfully the life-and-death struggle of citizens of a democracy against the forces of darkness we must recognize that thus far we have achieved democracy only imperfectly in our own nation and in our own communities and that we cannot suspend for the duration the struggle to achieve a fuller measure of it. It is only when all our people, rich and poor, black and white, natives and immigrants, are convinced by our deeds now and forevermore that we mean to translate our noble phrases into concrete realities that we can expect from them the devotion to our cause and the willing sacrifice for it that will make it their cause also.

To solidify our nation and our communities in the face of temporary defeats, hardships, and attempts to divide us, we need, further, a vision of where we want to go. We should not wish our men to return from battle to a community less worth living in and living for than the one they left.

If we would fulfill these responsibilities, we must distribute the privileges of democracy as we distribute the sacrifices for it. This requires the eradication of those conditions in our communities which have impeded the opportunity of each member to develop

himself to his fullest potentialities. It requires the eradication of vested interests, of deep-seated prejudices, and of all forms of discrimination against individuals and groups on account of race, color, national origin, or religion. Some of these are matters that men cannot determine for themselves, and some are matters that they should be free to choose for themselves. We must begin at once to recognize the fact and to conduct our lives accordingly.

The sheer will to survive, furthermore, requires that we begin now in our communities, however each may have been affected by the war, to plan how we shall make the transition to peace; how we shall use our resources, both human and material, to cushion the shock of demobilization of armies and munitions factories and to create a better life for ourselves and our children. To these tasks each man of good will, each association of free men and women, and particularly each association of parents and teachers, has a contribution to make.

CHAPTER III

LIFE TAKES THE FAMILY PATTERN

GERTRUDE LAWS

Gertrude Laws has been prominently identified with parent education work in both the East and the West. In the latter region she was connected with the Bureau of Parent Education of the California State Department of Education. Today, as director of education for women of the Pasadena Public Schools, she not only has responsibility for the curriculum but conducts adult education classes as well.

MANY books have been written about the home, many others about the community. Thousands of students in colleges and high schools have had courses dealing with the home and the community. Most of them tend to leave the reader or the hearer with a kind of vague feeling that "the home" and "the community" are remote from themselves and their experiences, or that they exist mainly in textbooks used in sociology or home economics courses, or in lecture notes.

Once, for a period of several days, I made it a point to listen to conversations in which mention was made of home or community. I heard people say:

He has no home.

She makes her home in a hotel.

His home is where his hat is.

They have bought a home.

They are building a home.

A home is being sought for this child.

They have lost their home.

We rent our home.

She makes her home in her son's family.

I own an apartment in that building.

Many other expressions were used, indicating that there are many kinds of homes but that "the home," like "the family," "the

school," "the church," and "the community," exists only as a mental concept.

I also looked about at the great variety of places that served as homes in one relatively small community. I saw rude shelters devoid of every convenience, comfort, and sanitary arrangement; ugliness, disorder, and squalor abounded. I saw little houses of many varieties and with great differences in the care they received. I saw big houses that would have been the envy of kings and princes not long ago. I saw sordid, ugly rooming houses, and enormous beautiful hotels and apartment houses. All of these places were occupied by people; some by only one person; some by two or more persons of the same race, the same sex, and about the same age; some by a husband and wife; some by a father, a mother, and children; some by parents, children, and grandparents or other relatives; and some by one parent and children. There was no way even to guess with assurance the quality of the life that was going on in each of the homes observed. It seems, then, that families, like homes, offer a wide variety even in a favored community—that each, in fact, is unique.

Then I thought about all the communities I had known. There is the agricultural area in which each farm or ranch is almost self-sufficient with reference to food, shelter, social life, and occupation. A public school, a community church, a post office, and a general store serve to promote a feeling of neighborliness even during periods in which there is little communication except through these three institutions. There is the small village, in which everyone knows everyone else. Then there is the great city, in which an individual may live and work and know only the persons with whom he works, and in which there is little if any feeling of neighborliness.

Is there any common denominator for all these factors that make up our concept of home, family, and community? If there is a common denominator by means of which we can reduce all this variety to serviceable understanding, it is the fact that homes, families, and communities are made for and by human beings. In every condition men and women mate; children are born and grow



Photograph by Ewing Galloway

up; death takes place. In every condition the attitudes and practices of parents, whatever they may be, are the materials from which children build their notions of family, of home, and of community.

THE PLASTIC YEARS

There is reason to believe that first impressions and family experiences in the home have some effect upon all subsequent experience. The entire body of a child, which is his equipment for learning, is more impressionable in infancy than at any other time in his life, and in infancy all children who survive receive care that expresses the quality of family or home. Before a child is old enough to enter public school he has quite well-defined notions of home and family, although he may not be able to put his definition into words. Indeed, a verbal definition of home or family by any one of us is merely the best summary we can make of our own total experience in relation to homes and families.

Two parents who love and understand each other; who are courteous and considerate; who enjoy good health and amiable dispositions; who are reasonably successful in their respective work; and who find parenthood an acceptable role, create an atmosphere in which little children build a wholesome, stabilizing notion of family and home life. This does not imply that such parents are always in complete agreement or have no problems to solve or conflicts to resolve, for wherever human beings are growing and developing there will be conflicts to be resolved, problems to be solved, and agreements to be reached. But wise parents will carry out these processes in a manner that will not devastate the personality of any of the persons involved. Normal children can understand that differences of opinion do not destroy mutual respect and affection.

On the other hand, two parents who habitually distrust each other; who find each other baffling and impossible to understand; who are rude or negligent; who are ill in body or mind; who are attempting work for which they are ill suited; who never wanted to be parents anyway and find the role of parenthood irksome or distasteful, create an atmosphere of suspicion, distrust, thoughtless-

ness, illness, instability, discontent, and insecurity. Each child is likely to carry these attitudes which he builds toward family and home into his wider community experiences at school and on the playground.

Many parents and teachers are not fully aware of the far-reaching importance of early childhood experience. Adults attempting to understand the conduct of children of school age often fail to take into account the effects of early experience in home and family. Many persons have been rendered incapable of responding to beautiful and restoring conditions that may be made available to them. Even if they are able to respond, the crippling effect of early experience seems to persist. While full understanding on the part of adults who deal with children would not eliminate the problem, the chances of wise treatment would be greatly increased by such understanding. In other words, awareness of all that enters into a problem of human relationships is likely to make us act somewhat more wisely than we would be likely to act if we were ignorant of the contributing factors.

Each individual has to learn to understand his own behavior and that of others, just as he has to learn everything else that gives him whatever degree of skill he may have for his task of living. For the most part that learning is done in families and homes. As with all learning, there is a great difference in the ease and speed with which people learn to understand themselves and others. One person learns so easily and quickly that we say he is "naturally" good, or kind, or sympathetic. Another, perhaps in the same family, may learn so slowly and with such difficulty that he grows to manhood or goes to his grave feeling that every man's hand is against him, having meanwhile spent his entire life in seeking self-satisfaction and in violating every known rule for getting along well with his fellow men. We say he is "naturally" selfish, or unkind, or even evil. The fact probably is that he found learning with reference to human relationships difficult, just as some other person may find learning to spell or to read or to do arithmetic so difficult that he never accomplishes it. Perhaps the methods that seemed to "work" with other members of his family did not

“work” with him. It may be that some intense experience in his early life set up emotional resistances to such learning. It may be that he has some deficiency or imbalance within his own organism that affects his emotions in a way unfavorable to learning to understand himself and others. Whatever the cause may be, experience in home and family life really sets the tone for the attitudes of any person toward community life and activities. That tone affects what is heard by every pupil in school as well as what is heard at home. The same verbal statement made by a teacher or a parent is heard differently by different children, because of the different experiences and feelings that the hearer brings to the hearing. The same statement may arouse merriment in one, discouragement in another, and antagonism in a third.

THE INFLUENCE OF CHANGE

Social and economic changes that affect the lives of families are familiar to everyone; so familiar, indeed, that they are sometimes ignored in making plans for the development of better home and community life. For this reason it seems worth while to review some of them, without going into historical background or philosophic interpretation. A mere listing of discernible changes might provide a basis for further study of the way in which such changes have affected particular families and homes and communities. In some communities these changes may be advantageous, and in others, destructive. The point is that they affect the quality of home and community life:

Rapid growth of cities and consequent reduction of space for homes and families.

Seasonal employment, which requires frequent moving from one place to another. Seasonal unemployment, which throws families on relief or into anxiety.

Frequency of separation or divorce.

Centralization of industry, which requires those who work outside the home to spend much time and energy in transportation every day.

Increased necessity for mothers to work outside their homes. (This includes not only economic necessity but social pressure upon women to do volunteer work.)

Number of children in the family.

Age at which men and women marry.

Church attendance.

Laws that affect home life in its relation to communities, such as those affecting school attendance, traffic, child labor, taxes, building restrictions, food handling, milk, and drugs.

Use and sale of intoxicating liquor.

Political corruption.

Commercialized entertainment.

Community recreation; playgrounds, summer camps, organizations for boys and girls.

Home labor-saving devices.

Removal from the home of such activities as laundry; care of the sick, the newborn, and the dead; and production and manufacture of food and clothing.

Longer period of economic dependence of children.

Community programs of health.

Changes in school organization.

Increase in scientific knowledge of human development and human relationships.

War and other forms of violence.

FORCES OF LIFE AND ACTION

While it is difficult to think of homes and families apart from each other, there is a distinction. The home is the place in which a family lives. From the standpoint of effective living a person's family is more important than his home. True grandeur of spirit may reside in humble surroundings. Meanness of spirit may reside in impressive surroundings. No one would be so silly as to insist that poverty, or ugliness in any form, is necessary to strength and beauty of character; but it would be equally silly to assume that

luxury is a guarantee of strength and beauty of character. Family life that is characterized by love, understanding, courtesy, consideration, health, cheerfulness, and courage may enable every member of the family to transcend material limitations and reach great heights. The material surroundings of a family are subject to changes that are due to forces outside and beyond the family itself. A shift in population, a new invention, labor disturbances, an earthquake, a fire, a flood, an economic disaster, or some other force may destroy in a very short time what appears to be permanent economic security. But the intelligence, the emotional vigor, the spiritual dignity, and the mutual understanding and loyalty within a family can be preserved and kept growing in the face of swift change of any kind.

HOW FAMILIES AFFECT COMMUNITIES

The hopes, the aspirations, and the beliefs that are developed in the members of families determine the kind of communities we have in our country. The kind of community regulation of life; the extent of law observance; the extent of gambling; the sexual standards; the methods of resolving conflict; and the religious life of a community come out of the separate homes that compose that community. Peace, fair play, individual freedom, and responsibility must be rooted and tended in families if our communities and our nation are to have the spiritual courage necessary to preserve the democratic way of life in the world. On the other hand, every family in every home in every community in our country is affected by complex and far-reaching conditions about which most of us are ignorant. Yet the elementary experience in the home forms the basis for adult policy making. The habit of inquiry and a positive program of study in all the homes of our country with reference to child care, nutrition, safety, personal hygiene, education, industrial organization, and government would be the most effective way to bring about conditions that would affect home life favorably. Understanding, sympathy, confidence, generosity, faith, and trust are powerful constructive forces. Habitual use of such forces in all homes would soon make peace as dynamic as war.

A TASK FOR THE P.T.A.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has a long history of devotion to the improvement of home and family living. Parent education has been a major interest of the Congress for many years. Yet there is wide variation in the excellence of its program of study. Indeed, there is wide variation in notions of what parent education is. In this, as in other things, what any person thinks or believes tends to determine what he does.

If one believes that education is something one person does to another, he will be likely to feel that parent education must wait until some teacher of parents appears, tells parents what to do, how to do, and when to do, and then exercises enough power to see that the prescription is carried out.

On the other hand, if one believes that education is a continuous process that begins at birth and continues at different rates throughout life—that education is a matter of learning to live better and better—he will be apt to join voluntarily with others in the study of what has been found out about human needs and about ways of meeting those needs.

If one believes that education can be completed, he is likely to feel and say, after a period of study, "I have *had* parent education." He will not realize that a parent may be a fine and effective parent of an infant but that the knowledges and skills effective in the care of an infant are not adequate to the care of an older child or an adolescent youth, nor do they produce the real satisfactions of grandparenthood.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers could make a great contribution, not only to life in families but to community life, by recapturing the joyous adventure that is a part of voluntary learning, of the discovery or invention of better ways of living. Learning that takes place under duress, even that of organizational pressure, loses much that is valuable and necessary to free enterprise. Every individual who recognizes the great opportunity home life offers to make a better community and a better world could well be concerned with learning, with discovery or invention of better ways to live. So often such a person is concerned to see

that other people "who really need it" should study and learn. Parents, like all other persons, learn when they themselves feel the need to learn; when they themselves are ready to make the sustained effort that is necessary to learning, to growth, to changes in the way one feels and thinks as well as in the way one acts. It seems reasonable that those who know most and have done the best work with their families will be the ones who are most likely to be aware of how much there is to know and ready to make the effort necessary to learning it. In the course of time, the enthusiasm of those who find study exhilarating and well worth the effort it takes will be communicated to those "who really need it."

Parents who are self-centered, who neglect or abuse their children and their homes, who feel frustrated, bored, indifferent, and insecure, are not likely to be aware that they need to know any more than they do, or even that there is anything more to be known. They are not likely to be much affected by the discussions of a group into which they have been led or forced by well-meaning neighbors or friends who feel that study would be good for them.

Alongside that very obvious fact, however, is another that gives direction concerning ways of "getting those who need to study" to do so. Understanding and decency are communicable just as surely as evil is communicable. The pursuit of understanding and social decency by those who already know most leads the way. Resorting to compulsion to make others follow in the way has seldom brought much satisfaction. But the exercise of hospitality toward all interested persons and an honest effort to reconcile differences of opinion and habit carry great promise of satisfaction as well as of accomplishment.

There are differences due to age, to race, to sex, and to material environment that cut off opportunities for reconciliation except for the most highly developed and the wisest persons in each community. It is for them to engage in the study of ways in which their great obligation can be discharged. Conflict usually arises if cocksureness is present, for this quality seldom comes out of honest inquiry. The time is at hand for bold attempts to find right answers to personal and social problems. This will require long and arduous

work, together with willingness to find ourselves wrong even after most careful and sincere effort. The bolder the leadership, the more likely it is that there will be a following.

There are many reasons for the lack of boldness observable in everyday civil life. People in all walks of life suffer from inertia; fear of exposing their ignorance; impatience with the slowness of education, the desire for a prescription that will bring immediate relief; a multiplicity of obligations; or an absence of convictions with regard to education. In the face of such typical conditions there is no expectation of any magical or sudden universal development of study. No parent-teacher association need feel discouraged by this fact. Rather, it should be looked upon as an opportunity to build courageously, slowly, and carefully the kind of program of study that will best suit the needs of a particular community. The outcomes of such a program in a community will be greater unity, greater cooperation, greater self-discipline, greater freedom for self-development, and a heightened social conscience. Unless there is evidence of such outcomes, a critical examination should be made of the program of study and the methods employed in carrying it out.

As time goes on and swift changes take place throughout the world, the importance of organized study by parents emerges in clear relief. In many countries free schools have disappeared. The enormous war expenditures in our own country may curtail the available support for public education. There is, therefore, greater need every day for programs of study that will develop clear-headed, courageous adults who care for their community and their country more than for themselves and who know how to cultivate understanding, sympathy, confidence, generosity, faith, and trust in others. Programs of this kind seem especially the responsibility of parent-teacher associations. It may be that emphasis should be shifted from perfecting an organization to developing programs of education that would fit us for the rehabilitation of society after the war.

Such programs would depend in each community upon the existing interest in community effort; the readiness of different

committees of the organization to gear their activities to a common purpose; the relationship between the organization and the school authorities; the relationship between the organization and other organizations in the community; and probably other factors. The public library, the churches, the recreation and health departments, and the peace officers, as well as other workers who are in private practice, are willing to help promote work of this kind in most communities. Perhaps the time has come when many individuals and organizations will be willing to work hard for a worth-while purpose and be not too much concerned about getting credit for it. Whatever the condition of readiness in any given community, the urgency for work that will strengthen homes is apparent. In some communities the parent-teacher association is in the most favorable position to assume leadership in the development of a program suited to the existing needs. In other communities, other organizations or even individuals may hold a more favorable position for leadership, but always the members of the parent-teacher association are committed in advance to support of and cooperation in community activities that have to do with the welfare of homes.

CHAPTER IV

LINKING THE SCHOOLS WITH LIFE

WILLIAM G. CARR

William G. Carr works constantly to interpret and improve the relationship between the school and community. He is secretary of the Educational Policies Commission and associate secretary of the National Education Association. Under his direction the commission has produced a number of distinguished volumes on citizenship education. Dr. Carr serves on numerous national boards and committees.

THERE is nothing unique in the idea of public education. Every country in the world that lays claim to any degree of civilization whatever now has such a system. It is true that the American system of public schools serves a much larger proportion of the total population than do the systems of other countries. But the basic idea of public education is not an American invention; nor is it, at the present time, unique to American life.

The thing that is unique about American education is its purpose and its relation to the community. In most other countries of the world education is, to a large extent, a function of the central government. In many of these countries the school system is consciously used as a means of propagating the ideas held by the party in control of the central government. This is true in Japan, in Germany, in Russia, in Italy, and probably in both occupied and unoccupied France. The American educational system is unique among those of any part of the world because of the close relation between the local school and the local community it serves.

The United States has no minister of education. It has no central propaganda bureau. The basic policies of education are laid down in each democratic community, with only a minimum of oversight by the state government and practically no control whatever by the Federal Government. That is why every Amer-

ican school can be gloriously different from every other American school. That is why there is such great opportunity for experimentation and progress. That is why the local school in America is so peculiarly a source of local pride and enthusiasm. That is why American schools are more free than those of any other land.

Against the great advantages that accrue from local control of education, we must, if we are to be honest, set down certain possible disadvantages. It is of little value to have local control of education if there is no local interest in education. It is not only worthless but positively dangerous to have local control of education if that means that some localities will permit young people to grow to adult citizenship without adequate preparation for their duties in life. Local administration is crippled if it is not supplemented and supported by vigorous state and national professional leadership that will, without exercising control, provide a dynamic element from which growth and improvement may come. Local control that subjects the schools to petty politics is as bad as national control could possibly be. Local control will work only if citizens care enough about it to make it work. In short, it does little good and may do much harm to have a local school system that has lost its roots in the local community.

WHY ISOLATE OUR CHILDREN?

Many schools are like little islands set apart from the mainland of life by a deep moat of convention and tradition. Across this moat there is a drawbridge, which is lowered at certain periods during the day in order that the part-time inhabitants may cross over to the island in the morning and back to the mainland at night. Why do these young people go out to the island? They go there in order to learn how to live on the mainland. When they reach the island they are provided with a supply of excellent books that tell all about life on the mainland. They read these books diligently, even memorizing parts of them. Then they take examinations on them.

Once in a while, as a special treat, the bus takes a few of the more fortunate or favored islanders on a hasty tour through the

mainland itself. But this is very rare and is allowed to occur only when the reading of the books about the mainland has been thoroughly completed.

After the last inhabitant of the island has left in the early afternoon, the drawbridge is raised. Janitors clean up the island, and the lights go out. No one is left there except perhaps a lonely watchman keeping a vigil along the shoreline. It never occurs to anyone on the mainland to go to the island after the usual daylight hours. The drawbridge stays up, and the island is left empty and lifeless through all the late afternoon and evening hours, all the early morning hours, and all day on Saturday and Sunday. The raised drawbridge collects cobwebs for seven days a week throughout a long summer vacation, for two weeks at Christmas, and for another week or more at Easter.

Once in a great while some hardy soul will arrange to get the drawbridge lowered at one of the unusual hours. With a few companions, he will venture across to the island. The island, at such a time, is in a very unnatural and forbidding condition and is quite unlike the island during the middle of the day, when its special inhabitants are there in full force.

Day after day, week after week continues the strange procession of young people going out to the island to learn about life on the mainland. At nine o'clock every morning they cross the drawbridge on their way to the island. As soon as they get across the drawbridge is raised, and no one may leave the island thereafter without a written permit. At three-thirty every afternoon, the drawbridge is lowered again in order that the inhabitants may leave.

Then there comes a very unusual occasion. The island is lit up in the evening. This special lighting of the island one evening a year is called commencement. After the commencement exercises, along about ten o'clock at night, if the commencement speaker has been reasonably brief and humane, the school orchestra sends the sounds of Kipling's "Recessional" echoing throughout the island, and a group of graduates cross the drawbridge back to the mainland *for the last time*. Yes, the last time, for



Photograph by H. Armstrong Roberts

when these graduates cross that drawbridge, they have then left the island for ever and ever. Many of them will literally never set foot on it again. Those who do occasionally visit it will regard it not as a place to learn but as a place to make social or business contacts.

Such, in brief, is the relation of many an American school to many an American community. Let us now follow the graduates. Having left the island for the last time, they take up their residence on the mainland as responsible citizens. Immediately they are bombarded with a barrage of practical problems inherent in living on the mainland.

For example, they need to know a number of things about the problems of citizenship. They need to know when a police force is working adequately and what standards may be applied to the efficiency of a police force. Would government by a city manager be better than government by a council? Is the housing in the community adequate? Are there enough recreational facilities in the community? How can one tell when housing is adequate? What are some of the means that are used for improving housing or recreation? Ought one to join a political party, and, if so, how? What is a political party, anyhow, and how does it operate? What is this thing called a ward captain? What are the opportunities for employment in the community? All these questions and a multitude of others now begin to strike hard and frequently at the graduates who have so recently left their part-time residence on the island. Sometimes, as he struggles valiantly with these questions, one of the former islanders will mutter to himself, "Now it does seem to me that once when I was on the island, I read something about that problem in a book."

THE LARGER POSSIBILITIES

This picture of the isolation of the American community from the American school is very much overdrawn for certain schools and certain communities. The Educational Policies Commission, in *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, described some of the exceptions. Yet I suspect that the average situation with reference

to school and community relations is not much better than that which I have just described. We shall never make our schools perform their proper function in American life until we get that drawbridge nailed down, or, better yet, until we fill in the moat and build a two-lane highway between the school and the mainland.

I am not asking that the schools become just as good or just as bad as the community. After all, the purpose of the school is to provide a special environment in which learning may take place efficiently and rapidly. The school should be different from the surrounding community and, if possible, better. Otherwise there would be no point in having a school. But if this difference is allowed to set the school apart from all contact with the real problems of the mainland, it defeats its own purpose. It educates children for a hothouse environment to which there is no parallel in real life situations.

The school must learn to use the community as a great living laboratory and textbook of civic and personal life. There must be a great deal more travel and guided observation under the auspices of educational authorities. The community and its problems must be studied at first hand. The books that now abound on the island are good books. They are essential tools of learning, but they are not sufficient. One cannot learn all about the mainland by reading books, although reading is a convenient way to learn certain things about it.

Not only must the school learn to use the community effectively as a means of education; it must also render service to the community. The young people of America want to do something that is useful and dignified by way of service to society. Some pioneer schools have already found literally hundreds of ways in which young people, with the encouragement of the school and under its auspices, may do worth-while things to make life better in the community in which they live. What better training for useful citizenship than this could possibly be provided?

Nor is this the only dimension of the road that must be built between the school and the community. The school uses the

community; but the community must use the school. The lights ought to burn later in the school buildings, and the school grounds and other facilities ought to be available for public use more hours a day, more days a week, and more weeks a year. Who has not felt a sense of indignation at driving past fenced and locked school playgrounds during the summer months, while little children were playing dangerously in the streets nearby? Modern schools have shops, libraries, gymnasiums, swimming pools, playgrounds, auditoriums, little theaters, science laboratories, and a host of other facilities that ought to be at the service of the community when these facilities are not required for the formal education of children and youth. Schools should be planned and built with this community service in mind, and school budgets should provide the funds and the staff that will enable the school to offer these services to the community.

IT HAS BEEN DONE

There are already enough schools of this kind to show the way. Let me mention just a few illustrations. The book to which reference has already been made gives the story at greater length.

The Friends and Neighbors Club at the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City maintains a community clubroom, adult education classes, reading periods for neighborhood children, and a wide variety of civic activities.

The Block Beautiful Club in the Wadleigh High School in New York City has cleaned up an entire neighborhood, sponsored window gardens, and worked with police, landlords, and tenants to improve housing conditions.

The Abraham Lincoln High School in Los Angeles has a Junior Council that sends students to hospitals to give programs and teach handicrafts, to supervise playgrounds for younger children, and to co-operate with an adult Community Council. There are no awards and emblems for the council, other than "the reward we get inside of us," as one student said.

The John Marshall High School of Minneapolis and the Ohio State University High School at Columbus are among the schools that

sponsor extensive and carefully planned field trips for juniors and seniors.

The seniors in the Schenectady High Schools make a periodic survey of job opportunities in the city, visiting 3,000 business and professional enterprises. The information is used to help students select an occupation and to secure the best preparation for it.

The senior high schools in Denver made a detailed survey of recreation in the city, broadcast a summary of the results, and organized a mass meeting at which their findings were presented.

A number of schools, such as the Fieldston School in New York City, operate summer work camps and field trips.

Many schools, such as the Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio, provide systematic assistance for the needy and do it in such a way as to avoid both humiliation of the recipient and a patronizing attitude in the sponsors.

The Parker High School of Birmingham, a Negro school, gives an annual choral concert that helps to support a camp for underprivileged children.

In Rochester, New York, weekly parent-youth conferences have been held for discussion of matters of common concern.

Students in the Theodore Roosevelt High School in Des Moines, Iowa, have organized efforts to secure a city manager form of government and to conduct a get-out-the-vote campaign.

Students in Radford, Virginia, have started campaigns that improve health and recreation facilities in that city.

These illustrations are from cities; many others from smaller communities and from rural districts could be added to the list if space permitted.

When there are thousands of such schools in America, we shall see the full and proper development of the American tradition of local initiative in education. Until we do secure a closer relationship between the school and the community, we shall not capitalize to the full the great inherent value of America's decentralized local educational system.

THE P. T. A. CAN HELP

In the building of this highway between the school and the community, the local parent-teacher association, with its state and national leadership, is an important advance guard. These local associations can, if they will, direct their attention to the nailing down of the drawbridge or the filling in of the moat; this will, in the long run, do more for the extension and preservation of local initiative in the schools than any type of legislation or any form of social welfare activities the local association of parents and teachers might sponsor.

How can the parent-teacher association help to accomplish this desirable result? First of all by encouraging student participation with teachers and citizens in making plans and determining policies in matters to whose handling young people can contribute. This is being done in many associations through the inclusion of a student representative on the executive committee of the organization. And the practice has more than justified parent-teacher faith in its value and usefulness.

American parents want their schools to give their children faith in American democracy. They want students to learn what a democratic society offers that a totalitarian society can never even promise. They know that faith in American democracy must be built upon a knowledge of the truth about our society and not upon blind belief in a perfection that admits of no criticism. How better, then, can they attain this end than by seeing to it that young people are not cut off from actual life during the important formative years?

American parents want the schools to give young people practice in discussing controversial questions. The habit of clear thinking is one that cannot be dispensed with by any citizen who holds democracy dear. It lies well within the power of the parent-teacher association to provide youth with the opportunity to learn to think clearly against a background of realistic knowledge and in company with seasoned adult minds. This can be done by admitting student members to certain committees and by allowing student participation in certain round-table discussions.

American parents want the schools to give young people more training through direct experience with local government. This is a field in which parent-teacher associations are well qualified to assist. The parent-teacher program touches at some point every phase of local government and public welfare.

So may the drawbridge be nailed down, or the dividing moat filled in. And, while they work toward this end, parents and teachers should keep always in mind the permanent lowering of certain national and international drawbridges that have separated us from the rest of the world and hindered the growth of our human understanding. The United States is now and forever bound up in the affairs of the world; it is foolish for this country ever again to retreat to the position of isolation. The course of events has inexorably pushed world power into the hands of the American people. Youth must be prepared to support the Government as it assumes its responsible role in peace and reconstruction. We must continue to teach the values of international justice and peace and to bring these ethical ideals to bear on the problems of securing international order and justice in the twentieth century. No better preparation for this all-important work can be found than the preparation of the minds of our young people through their serious participation in the affairs of the adult community. Let every school and classroom be an inspiring example of an efficient democracy in action. Let every parent-teacher association take its place as the perpetual sponsor of at least one such democracy.

CHAPTER V

RELIGION AND THE AMERICAN DREAM

EVERETT R. CLINCHY

Everett R. Clinchy is nationally known for his leadership of inter-church cooperation movements. He is president of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. An ordained clergyman, he served as secretary of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America from 1928 to 1933, and has been a teaching fellow at Drew University, Madison, N. J., since that time.

EVERY nation builds its civilization upon certain recognized values. Indeed, it can be said that the basic distinction that marks one nation as separate from another is not so much language or physical characteristics or climate as it is *ideas*. The ideas, the customs, the institutions, the laws, the knowledge, and the arts people prize are the "valuables" of a nation.

The vitality of any nation can be measured by the degree of conviction of the people about the prime values in their civilization. For example, our country developed rapidly and lustily because we as a people have believed fervently in the values of liberty and equality in our Declaration of Independence, and we shall undoubtedly tend toward decadence and doom when we lose faith in these values. Or, again, the freedom of man's mind and soul, guaranteed by the Bill of Rights, will be assured only as long as a sufficient number of citizens have faith to believe that they have "natural rights"—that is, rights based on the nature of man as a child of God.

This, then, is where the community and the church join forces. To furnish convictions about values is a duty of the churches. A function of religion in a democracy is to supply a more-than-natural faith in the capacity of a human being to live as a free man.

Religion supplies the values.

Individuals in community organizations apply the values.

Democracy is the *method* Americans use to work out desired forms they wish the values to take.

CONVICTIONS AND VALUES

What are the fundamental convictions of American community life, and what are the resultant values? The convictions may be listed as follows:

1. Belief in the sacredness of human personality.
2. Belief that a person should be treated as an end, never solely as a means.
3. Belief that, because man is a creature of a Divine Creator, every human being has natural rights.
4. Belief that man's sovereign relation is to his conscience.

When these convictions go, the system of morals founded upon them goes. And democratic community living goes, too.

Convictions about these values are central in both Judaism and in Christianity. They are the contributions of the Judaeo-Christian tradition and are essential parts of it. It is here that all religious citizens discover common ground. These are convictions that Anglicans, Evangelical Protestants, Greek Catholics, Jews, Mormons, Quakers, Roman Catholics, Christian Scientists, and Unitarians hold to be more precious than life itself.

When translated into everyday living, the resulting values are not abstract and not difficult to understand. The American way can be put in as simple, concrete language as this:

We can go to a church with a free pulpit.

We can create a school based on truthfulness.

We can read, see, and hear what we choose.

We can discuss, disagree, and argue, and still be friends.

We can probe corruption and defeat it.

Our telephones are untapped, our mail is uncensored.

We can join any political party we choose.

We have the security of common law.

We can work freely with others for desired social changes.

We can dream glorious dreams that beautify our lives, and we can hope to have at least some of them realized.

A CONFLICT OF CONVICTION

An illustration of the way in which ideas and beliefs make a world of difference between national communities is provided by certain European societies. The totalitarian nations differ profoundly from all that we sum up as "the American way." The Axis state enslaves. In the ruthless scheming of its uncontrolled leaders the individual is merely a means to an end. The end is the state, and the result is that the life of the individual is regimented at every point. His thinking and his conduct are directed by a political party. Secular materialism is "the fundament" of their philosophy. Their governmental technique consists in terror, physical power, the use of secret police, obscene punishment, and bondage.

A war between the ideas of democratic communities and the ideas of totalitarian communities is going on at the time this book is being written. American democracy is involved in total war. One might truly say that this war for survival is a job of policing the safety of this country's cherished values. Behind the guns, the tanks, the airplanes, and the marching men of the present war there is a spiritual challenge, directed against not only the very existence of democracy in general, but against religion in particular. Religious affirmation of the worth and rights of the individual forms the foundation of our Republic. If democracy is to be maintained, it must be on the basis of essentially religious principles.

In sum, the task of organized religion in a community is to *provide values and convictions about those values*. By "valuable things" we mean the relation of the areas commonly referred to as *holy, just, true, good, beautiful*, to everyday life experiences. *Worship* is a means of getting inspiration and spiritual power to put into practice the highest insights, standards, and values one knows. *The disciplines* of religion are to everyone's spiritual life what health laws are to his organic well-being—means of strength and growth. *Sacraments* are means to more-than-natural access of God to man. In each case, the sacraments, the worship, and the

disciplines or organized religious life are *means*. The *ends* are to help men and women to live a Godlike life. This is the sole function of the churches. That role never changes.

CHANGING FUNCTION

It is the responsibility of religious people, leaving their altars of worship, to go into society *as citizens* and to build the values derived from their religion into their social, business, and political relations. Some call the goal "The Good Society," and others, "The Kingdom of God on Earth." The primary task is to get religious people to live every minute in the consciousness that they live in the presence of God.

Neither the church, the cathedral, nor the synagogue attempts to draw the blueprints for social, business, or political arrangements. That is why the function of the organized religious bodies never changes. But the functions of religious people in the community are ever-changing! In one generation they discover that slavery is inconsistent with the brotherhood of man: they work against slavery. In another century they find much knowledge of medicine, but no hospitals for the common people: they establish hospitals. Just so were music, painting, sculpture, and schooling first popularized by pioneering individuals motivated by religion. Tasks originating in circles of religious people are in many cases taken over later by voluntary civic agencies or by the people's government. In our generation the wisdom and the conscience of religious people direct them to action for better housing for the poor, for fair play in race relations, for a political organization of all nations based on law; and in time their dreams will come true. Thus it is fair to say that what Quakers call "the concerns" of religious citizens change with the times.

A main point is that when a religion fails to send people from its houses of worship motivated and inspired to improve their own homes, schools, community agencies, and earth-wide relations, then that religion is dying. A corollary is equally true: any home, school, community agency, or nation that tries to build a society without religious values and motivation, will fail.

A UNIFIED PURPOSE

From this discussion it should be clear that as long as individuals have a lively faith and enthusiastic loyalty to their house of prayer, they will want to remain separate from those who worship differently *while they are at worship*. In all their relationships *as citizens*, however, there is every reason for mutual understanding and cooperation among persons of different religious faiths. Moreover, there is nothing in the doctrines of Protestant Churches, the Roman Catholic Church, the Jewish Synagogues, the Eastern Orthodox Church, the Mormon faith, or Quaker institutions that would prevent anyone from carrying out any essential obligation for community action.

Because the convictions and values for which religion stands and upon which the democratic process rests are desperately attacked today, Protestants, Catholics, and Jews have especial reason to rally together. Not only must they seek to understand and appreciate one another; they must learn to work actively together more than they have ever done in the past.

This is no new idea to the parent-teacher association, which has always included in its membership persons of every national, racial, and religious background. These have been bound together by common objectives, which could be pursued without disturbing the allegiance owed by individual members of the association to the particular political, social, or religious groups to which they adhere.

Nevertheless, the idea of a community of interest and cooperation among Protestants, Catholics, and Jews on a broad scale of community life is still something new under the sun. The effort to enforce cultural and therefore religious conformity reaches back to very ancient times. Out of it has issued a vast deal of secular tyranny and religious intolerance, powerful throughout the ages and continuing to our own day. Each of the three religious groups into which most of our population is divided has been guilty of its share of intolerance at one time or another. Even in our own brief history we have had our religious zealots, as witness the Nativist fanatics in the 1830's, the bigoted "Know-Nothings" of

the 1850's, the American Protective Association of the 1890's, and the Klu Klux Klan of the 1920's.

During the last two centuries, however, it has gradually dawned upon Christians, both Catholic and Protestant, as well as upon Jews and even unbelievers, that minority groups can be good citizens, and that the state, instead of being weakened, may actually be strengthened by tolerating religious diversity and encouraging rivalry in good works.

The parent-teacher association is pioneering by helping to bring about what is, perhaps, the greatest social change of the twentieth century—good fellowship and cooperation among Catholics, Jews, and Protestants. It is most urgent that this should be a point of special endeavor now.

What are the reasons, in addition to the common danger from enemies without, that should persuade church, cathedral, and synagogue to cooperate—reasons that appeal peculiarly to parents and teachers?

Men and women are social beings who combine in communities to achieve together things that seem severally to them to be desirable. The things for which a community will strive are those which, it is agreed, by general consent, are valuable.

THE GOALS OF SERVICE

It is not difficult to discern and to list certain objectives that appeal both to the parent-teacher association and to citizens of every religious affiliation as valuable and desirable. All emphasize the fundamental importance of spiritual values in the growth of the child. The church, the home, and the school regard the following objectives as desirable and wish them to be incorporated in the educational process:

1. Limitless development of the capacities of every child. This development can continue throughout life, which suggests that the parent and teacher also are capable of growth.
2. Interpretation of life and the universe in spiritual terms as the child's awareness of life expands in ever-widening circles.
3. Socialization of the child, that is, training the child to be

“live-with-able” in the community. Useful members of society, like spokes in a wheel, find their largest usefulness in activities related to others.

4. Cooperation of parents, teachers, and students of every faith in specific social objectives directed toward building in the United States the sort of a world we would like to live in.

5. A prosperous society. This involves the abolition of extreme inequalities of wealth, the banishment of poverty, the cure of the unemployment evil, and parity of educational opportunities for the child of every home. For the attainment of prosperity no single group in the community has the sole responsibility. All must share in it, and all must contribute to it. Capital, labor, agriculture, business—each has inescapable duties as well as vested rights. Each must play its part and relate its special claims to the interests of the commonwealth.

6. A healthy society. This calls for attention to physical and mental health. It requires proper diet, physical discipline, and recreation. Mental health is at least as important as physical health. It is intimately and intricately related to spiritual integrity.

The parent-teacher association might well take the initiative in bringing together teachers and consultants in each of these two fields of economics and medicine, that they may pool their experience and discover how they may be mutually helpful.

The Social Planning Council in one city has accomplished a great deal by bringing together for conference, first, the social workers of the community and a representative clergyman of each faith, to consider the reciprocal services that the church and the social agency can render each other and the community. Later, for the same purpose, the social workers and the leading physicians of the community were called together. Why should not the parent-teacher association do the same for teachers and parents as was done in this instance for social workers—calling in agricultural, business, and labor experts to confer on economic cooperation and medical experts, psychiatrists, clergymen, and social workers to confer in round-table fashion on problems of physical and social hygiene and religious training?

7. An intelligent society. Parents and teachers have a tremendous stake in the problem of world organization and postwar world reconstruction, as well as in shaping public opinion on these strategic matters, and they should themselves be intelligently informed. Understanding of race relations, scientific handling of delinquency and crime, appreciation of the fine arts—these are topics of vital concern to parents and teachers. Parent-teacher associations might well introduce to their memberships those leaders in the community who are skilled in these interests or pursuits.

8. A patriotic society. This calls for an intelligent and enlightened love of country, not for isolation. Democracy is not a status, but a process; not a station, but a road. True patriotism is not blind to the imperfections and dangers that characterize our democracy, but it believes in democracy and seeks to realize its ideals.

THE CHURCH AND THE SCHOOLS

Church, cathedral, synagogue, Quaker meeting house, Mormon temple—all these institutions probably would like to have the aid of schools in rearing a religiously literate generation. Not that the schools should teach doctrine or dogma; but they should certainly help to acquaint children with the best that has been “thought and said and done” in religion, as well as in science, literature, poetry, music, or any other field of human endeavor. Although a school faculty may decide that an additional course in religion is not necessary, appreciation of the history, literature, poetry, music, art, and philosophy of religion can be incorporated in the various subjects already in the curriculum.

Then, too, religion is caught more than it is taught. A teacher’s reverence for the reverences of others will have a lasting effect on the impressionable mind.

The extent to which a school system may be geared with week-day classes in religious education of churches and synagogues on “released time” or “dismissed time” involves policy. Considerable experimentation aimed at the integration of week-day religious education with the public schools’ social studies is being undertaken in numerous communities throughout the nation.



Schools now have consulting staffs of nurses, doctors, and psychiatrists to advise on the physical and mental well-being of the students. The time may come when chaplains, serving without pay and chosen for a year at a time by the faculty or student council, may become public school counselors on the religious life of the youngsters. Why not? The United States Army and Navy, state universities, and "free" colleges are aware of the importance of the spiritual integration of individual personalities. The very best psychologists now recognize the benefits of religion in emotional stability and growth of personality.

If American parents choose to be indifferent to the fruitful, impelling force of religious values in the education and development of the young generation, they will sacrifice blindly the generating spirit of their democracy. Our task is to set ourselves against those who would use religious differences to divide us into narrow, hostile groups and, instead, to give our children the ennobling, enriching precepts embedded in the great religious tradition of mankind.

A WORLD-APPLIED RELIGION

One other thought about the place of religion in neighborhood living: the postwar world will extend the concept of neighborhood to worldhood. If brotherhood within a nation is to be stretched to fit the globe, nothing less than a revolution in religious experience will suffice. Practically, the peace will be achieved when we apply to the world the American Dream, a dream which is shot through with applied religion.

What is the American Dream? The American Dream is the idea that people of forty-six different Old World nations can settle a continent 3,000 miles wide *as one nation*. These sons and daughters of every racial strain in the human family, every religious tradition, created a Constitution, with a Bill of Rights for everyone. The motto of this American idea is *E Pluribus Unum*, "out of the many, one." That is a religious idea. We have "inalienable rights" that no state can take away, because they are natural rights given by a Divine Creator. We have national unity

with the formula of a family's unity, "one nation indivisible, with liberty and justice for all." The only cement of this rich, interesting, various, different nation of ours is the religious definition of the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man.

The mission of America is to make this dream come true for the whole world. In this sense the impulse and the principle for abiding peace are, in essence, spiritual.

One earth, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all! There is a challenge worthy of our last full measure of devotion.

CHAPTER VI

TREASURES FOR THE TAKING

JOHN ADAMS LOWE

John Adams Lowe, director of the Rochester Public Library, Rochester, N. Y., is also chairman of the Editorial Committee of the American Library Association. He is a former librarian of Williams College and has served as field secretary of the Massachusetts Free Public Library Commission. He is the well-known author of *Public Library Administration* and *The Small Public Library Building*.

BOOKS are living beings in print. Reading is the medium of association with people of the past and present. The reading of books gives entrance into every realm of experience. In great literature one finds inspiration and guidance; from informational literature one gains knowledge of practical skills. The lives of men and women who lived nobly in their day bear convincing testimony to the influence of books in the enrichment of their experience. "Reading maketh the full man," but man needs more than knowledge to be a truly educated person. He needs to know how to live abundantly in his community. This requires that to his knowledge must be added the exercise of tolerance, the ability to think straight, and an appreciation of the basic values of honesty, purity, and unselfishness. A library is an assembly of books, not only for the preservation of the record of "all that mankind has done, thought, gained or been," but for convenient conference with the best thinking and action of today.

People accept the modern public library as an indispensable social institution in the life of the community. Indeed, it has origin in the community itself. It is not imposed upon the people from without. Groups of citizens organize it. They willingly tax themselves for library service because they want good books and a well-administered library service for their children and for themselves. They maintain it by appropriation from tax levies just as

they support the other departments of the municipality. So the people of the community themselves establish common book resources for the use of all the people. They do this because of the belief that, like the public school, with which it is closely coordinate, the public library is essential in a democracy if the citizens of that democracy are to be intelligent and useful. It is a powerful force that helps to keep people abreast of current events and well informed on all matters of public opinion.

Library service to the community is organized to meet the needs of all age groups, from the youngest children to the oldest inhabitants. The library provides books for readers of different educational levels throughout life. Some library readers follow the prescribed program of formal education from elementary school through college, while others never enter the formal school and still others leave school at various levels of its organization. To many of the group last mentioned, the education they obtain by the use of library facilities constitutes their chief intellectual equipment.

The library offers its community as comprehensive a collection of information in print as the community's needs and the available funds warrant. The books that go into it are chosen primarily because of their value and interest to readers and not because of the race, nationality, or political or religious views of the authors. As far as possible, all sides of questions involving differences of opinion are represented fairly and adequately.

QUALITY AND SCOPE OF THE LIBRARY

To be sure, the book collection is a measure of the cultural influence the library may exert upon the community; but to a greater degree the power of the library depends upon the quality of its personnel. "Seventy-five per cent librarian and twenty-five per cent books and equipment" has for a long time held as a fair ratio. Formerly the basic qualifications of a sound education, a wide knowledge of books, and an interest in working with people were sufficient for librarianship. Today professional training is being required more and more. In several states appointments in

tax-supported libraries may be made only to candidates certified by the state authorities that issue similar credentials to doctors, lawyers, teachers, and members of the other professions. Some cities require, in addition to a college degree, a library school degree and a state librarian's certificate that the candidate has passed civil service examinations.

Moreover, in the larger libraries there are to be found subject specialists with advanced degrees both in library science and in particular fields of research. Library schools offer special courses for the training of children's librarians, hospital librarians, business and other technical librarians. These high standards of librarianship have come about largely through the leadership of the American Library Association.

Open shelves in libraries, browsing rooms, special collections, children's and young people's departments, card catalogs, book lists, exhibits, story telling, teaching of the use of library tools—all these assist the library staff to serve readers effectively. The addition of branch and sub-branch libraries, stations, county-wide and region-wide service, interlibrary loans, bookmobiles, and messenger service make for more nearly adequate book service to the greatest possible number of readers.

With such purposes, resources, and personnel for its conduct, it may not be an overstatement to speak of the well-organized modern public library as the cultural center of the community.

The library uses more than print to furnish information to patrons. It uses the radio to review interesting books and to tell parents and children about new publications and new happenings in the book world. It holds lectures at which people are given the opportunity to listen to the opinions of important men and women on subjects of popular appeal and interest. This stimulates interest in the subject under discussion and a demand for books that give more facts than the lecturer has time to give. The library also exhibits materials from museums and uses pictures, photographs, and motion pictures to give its readers the information they need. Some libraries conduct concerts of recorded music as a part of their regular service.

It is true that many of these services are not available in libraries in small cities and towns. Nor is it always feasible for the community to provide them. Compensation is found in the value of a possible closer integration between the librarian and the educational, social service, and civic groups of the community than is possible in large cities. In many towns the library is the meeting place for such groups as the P.T.A., the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Red Cross, the various women's clubs, and the various civic councils. The librarian frequently takes part in the activities of these organizations.

Several agencies are responsible for the educational development of the people who make up the community. There are three that are particularly concerned with educational development through books and reading: the home, the school, and the library. Parents establish for their children the foundation for this development. Teachers build upon it the reading skills imparted by formal instruction. Librarians guide the reader in the application of what he is learning to the enrichment of his individual and community living. In the continuous process of growing up, each of these agencies has its period of especial emphasis and makes its own peculiar contribution.

FOUNDATIONS IN CHILDHOOD

The child who grows up in a home in which parents share well-chosen books with him acquires an early interest in reading, a sense of good taste, and the power of discrimination. The habit of reading can be cultivated, and if parents wish their children to care for the education and culture obtainable through books they must begin with themselves. They need to know at first hand the best in children's literature. For there is a best time for introducing any book to any child; and a lifelong loss may result for any child whose parents fail to feed a certain interest. Reading begins, therefore, almost with life itself. The mother sings to her baby the loveliest lullabies and hymns and the sweetest old story songs our literature possesses, and something of the sound of poetry is impressed upon the infant's sensitive brain. As he grows she goes with

him, patiently, with endless repetition, through beautifully illustrated and intelligible picture books, stories of everyday experience, stories of fairies and elves, animal stories, Bible stories, and travel tales. Reading together, sharing their experiences, both mother and child find it a happy process.

To aid parents who are concerned about their children's reading, librarians are especially well qualified. Indeed, in some libraries the department of work with children offers a specially organized children's book consultation service, beginning with first picture books and going through school years. Here are collections of books for preschool children, model grade libraries, comparative editions of standard classics, story telling, plays, foreign books, notably illustrated books, and the best of the current output. Bibliographies, lists, and pamphlet material are at hand, and all under the guidance of a librarian experienced in work with children, their parents, and the schools as well.

Study classes on the guidance of children's reading, organized by parent-teacher associations, are especially helpful to parents in finding a solution to the problem of home reading. Sometimes these classes are led by the children's librarian and meet in the public library. Parents meet regularly for several weeks and discuss the different kinds of children's books for different reading abilities and interests. In such instances the librarian is like a specialist who helps the parent diagnose the needs and interests of the child and suggests what to prescribe. Not every community, unfortunately, has a trained children's librarian. But somewhere in the community there will be found leadership for study courses until provision can be made for a librarian.

When a child goes to school he carries with him the mental background that has been developed at home. The school emphasizes at every turn the importance of reading and of books as tools of learning. It recognizes that reading is a basic skill, but it also stresses the fact that it is not enough to give a child the mechanics of reading. It soon guides him in the selection of his reading and encourages him to build sane reading habits for himself. The centralized school library, with a trained librarian

in charge, is considered as surely essential to the entire school community as is the laboratory to the teaching of science. Such a library provides material on all subjects of interest to pupils and teachers.

The school librarian coordinates the library's resources with curriculum assignments. As far as she has opportunity, she teaches the use of the library catalog, the magazine indexes, and the reference tools; she encourages the cultivation of chosen hobbies and provides information about vocations and how to prepare for them.

Happy is that child who, during his progress through school, discovers for himself the resources and facilities of the children's room in the public library. Here is a place where attendance is voluntary. Here reading is fun, for the sheer joy of knowing is the rule of the game. But it may take him time to realize fully that this is not merely a place in which to read and obtain books. It is a place to practice first lessons in citizenship, consideration for the rights of others, care of public property, and independent thought and judgment.

LIBRARY SERVICE TO YOUTH

The children's librarian, trained in accepted practices and sane methods of guidance, is prepared to meet the child's interests. She chooses the best books she can find, not specifically as texts in a learning process, not for preparation of school assignments, but for furnishing enrichment to every one who seeks it. She uses various methods and devices to bring the right book to the right child at the right time. She gives considerable attention to the appearance of the room, choosing decorations that appeal to children and radiate cheerfulness and good taste, and at the same time she provides physical equipment adequate to carry on the work of the department. Story telling, consultation with teachers and parents, the making of progressive reading lists, the choice of books for vacation reading, and the teaching of the use of library tools are some of the activities of the librarian in the children's room of the public library.

Some librarians are not satisfied that the specialized book service to children should stop when they leave the children's room. Therefore, young people's departments are being developed for boys and girls of high school age. Young people welcome further guidance when their interests are considered. There are many so-called adult books that meet the needs of young people in their teens, and the librarian especially trained in this department can give material aid with such problems as wholesome recreational reading, vocational reading, and creative reading.

The development of work with children grew out of the conviction that the child must be considered seriously as an individual and that he must be trained to accept his place in the community. As one of America's leaders in this field of librarianship has written:

A children's library is or should be a place where a child or a grown-up discovers that literature is still going on, that any day a new poet, a new story writer, a new scientist, a new explorer, a new historian, a new creator of picture books may appear to claim attention and challenge interest. This contact with ideas wherever children are exposed to books in a natural way is not dependent on costly equipment or spacious buildings. It rests upon the quality of books chosen and the ability of the librarian to offer that natural exposure to recreational reading and to independent research that is akin to sunlight, fresh air, and physical exercise.

RURAL LIBRARY SERVICE

The greatest need for library development today is in rural areas. In the United States forty-five million persons are still without public library service. The small community cannot alone provide it, except at a prohibitive cost. In much the same way that the consolidated school has spread, affording boys and girls who live in the country the broad educational advantages of a larger community, so the large unit public library system is being gradually introduced to provide equalization of library opportunity. It serves its whole area through a network of branches and service stations. Often a bookmobile goes from station to station

on regular schedule with a fresh supply of books. The unit of administration and support may be a large county or a district or region of several counties. Such an area can afford an able staff and a large and varied book collection to serve rural as well as city and town people. A well-established city library may become the headquarters, village libraries serving as branches, to take advantage of the larger book resources. Such a setup is known as a "county library" or a "regional library," according to the area covered.

The larger consolidated school and high school may develop their own school libraries. Often, instead, they have a branch of the county library with a teacher librarian in charge, the exact sharing of expense between the library and the school being worked out between the two institutions. A school librarian on the staff of the county library then supervises all the school library work. Good examples of such cooperation are found in California and in the Rosenwald demonstration county libraries in the South. Today, county and regional libraries are in operation in somewhat over three hundred counties in thirty-eight states. In addition, first steps toward this type of unified service have been taken in a number of counties by the pooling of all school libraries in a county school circulating library.

THE POSSIBILITIES

All the states have passed laws permitting the establishment of libraries. Most of them have set up state library extension agencies that give advice and help, lend collections of books or single books to supplement limited collections, and in some cases administer state aid and standards for public libraries. These official state library authorities are the first source of help after local agencies have been exhausted.

Nationally, the American Library Association has for many years given information and advisory service in library development to those who cannot secure it nearer at hand. It has a Public Library Division and a School and Children's Library Division.

In Washington, in January 1938, a Library Service Division was set up in the United States Office of Education, to serve as a Federal agency for stimulation in library matters.

Of all the community agencies, a well-directed local parent-teacher association is undoubtedly most favorably equipped to inaugurate public library service for its community and to encourage the support of this service. The association is doing much to bring the library and its own members together and to stimulate the best possible use of the facilities available. Parent-teacher groups are informing themselves of library needs and of state standards and are stimulating action by official bodies to secure permanent results.

This emphasis upon results of lasting value is one of the outstanding characteristics of the parent-teacher association. Realizing that only the development of firmly founded and continuing good habits in all life's phases, physical, mental, and spiritual, can assure the nation of firmly founded and continuing public welfare, the association has worked steadfastly for stable and enduring values. In large measure it has achieved them. With regard to library service it has been especially eager to serve. It is hoped that parent-teacher cooperation in the important task of giving the children of America the happiest possible reading experience will result in successive generations of truly well-read adults, whose lives are enriched and whose purposes are strengthened by the inner wealth of understanding and insight that only good books can give.

CHAPTER VII

FOR THE COMMON GOOD

PHILIP KLEIN

Philip Klein has had wide administrative and research experience in several social welfare agencies. He gained special recognition for his work as research director of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, 1939-1940. Since 1927, Dr. Klein has centered his activities in the New York School of Social Work, serving as teacher and research director. He is the author of the much-cited book, *A Social Study of Pittsburgh*.

SOCIAL welfare agency" is a term that to most of us is a little strange and not too clear. It is rather new, too. When the parents of the present generation were themselves children—little Lord Fauntleroy or barefoot boys—some social agencies did indeed exist, though not nearly so many as exist today, and they were known by other names: the charities, the orphanage; maybe the S.P.C.C.; and the dispensary. But there were no child guidance clinics or family service societies, no probation officers or visiting teachers, no mental hygiene clinics, and but few Y.M.C.A.'s and Y.W.C.A.'s. Certainly few of us thought about the health department—where there was one—as a social welfare agency, and the widow did not expect state and nation to come to her aid and help her support her children and keep her home together.

Most of us, therefore, have had to learn, and still have much to learn, about social agencies. Then, also, some of us parents live in great cities; others on farms, or in small towns, or in bigish cities; and social agencies are not always the same in city and in country; they are not everywhere available, not everywhere equally varied and accessible. It also makes a difference whether we live in the East or in the West, in a cotton state or in the wheat belt. Social welfare agencies are part of the general pattern of life wherever we live. It is important, therefore, to an understanding of social agencies in any community, that certain fundamental

facts about American life and community relations today be kept in mind, even though at first they do not seem to have much to do with social work or public welfare. A few of these, in summary form, follow:

1. Every citizen or member of a community is at the same time a citizen and member of his state and nation. To think of the local community as opposed to the state or the Federal Government suggests the famous story in Roman history, in which arms and legs proposed to go on strike to discipline the lazy good-for-nothing stomach. Local, state, and Federal governments are parts of one body, and they all have their jobs to do. To take a more modern example, these jobs must be fitted together like parts of an automobile: you can no more do without a carburetor than without a wheel, and oil is just as important as gasoline.

2. What is properly and advantageously the job of the local community and what can best be done by the state or the Federal Government is a matter of experience and experimentation; the division of labor changes with times and even with places—city or country, Northwest or Southeast. In the same way, there is no eternal and unchanging rule as to the things that can be done through taxes or by voluntary contribution, by public agencies or private associations. With respect to this, also, times change and places differ.

3. We must make every effort to get rid of the idea that even in normal times the American nation consists of a vast body of the "middle class," amply able to support itself on a comfortable level and embracing the majority of the people, with a small group of rich above and a small body of poor below. If that was ever true, it certainly has not been true for many a year. Rather, the situation, to put it into simple statistics, is this: Ninety per cent of all the people in the United States are members of families;¹ the rest live as single individuals or in institutions. Though all people are equally important for the community to be concerned about, let us here limit our discussion to "families," that is, to groups of two or more persons living together. It is in families that children are to be found, and children are our chief concern here.

¹The figures that follow are obtained chiefly from the *Consumer Income Study*, 1935-36.

Most of these families cannot be considered "well off." Less than eight per cent have incomes of \$2,500 or more a year, and this group tends to comprise the smaller families. Most of these families have not just less but far less income than \$2,500 a year. The income figure that follows is important to keep in mind, though it necessarily varies from year to year and from good times to bad. In 1935-36, which was neither at the lowest stage of the depression nor at the peak of well-being, some 65 per cent of these families had less than \$1,250 a year, and of these nearly a quarter had actually been on relief at some time during the year.

It is not necessary to take these figures as representing the exact truth. With varying conditions the percentages may be more or less accurate. But roughly they represent the basic truth of the economic foundation of families in most communities. Careful studies undertaken recently by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy have shown, indeed, that two-thirds of all the nation's children under sixteen years of age live in families that cannot afford a modest American standard of living.²

SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE COMMUNITY

How does all this bear on the question of social welfare agencies of the community? Obviously there are two sides to the question: (1) Who are the people that need the social services? (2) Who are the ones that will supply them? The fact that the majority of families have a relatively low income bears more on the question of who needs the services; the suggested relations between local community and state or nation bear chiefly on the sponsorship and the responsibility for supplying these services.

Everyone knows that the majority of those who need welfare services come from among the poor. To many of us, however, it has come as a surprise to realize, first, how large a proportion of the people are in the low income brackets, and second, how many of those who need help come not from the lowest of the low economic ranks only, but from the main body—the 65 per cent bulk—of the people as a whole.

²*General Report*, January, 1940, and *Final Report*, now in the press.

Now it would not be fair to interpret this fact as meaning *only* that poverty is more widespread and more serious than we had thought. It means also that our standards as to what is a decent level of life have gone up. After all, poverty is a relative term. To quote from the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy:

Keeping from actual starvation, being under a roof of some kind, and technically not unclad might be one standard. The panic-stricken multitudes of Europe and Asia at war might well feel thankful for even such assurance from day to day. Obviously this is not a standard relevant to the discussion of child welfare in America.³

We have been setting ourselves standards in keeping with scientific progress, with technological advance, with increasing national income, and with increasing wages as labor unions succeed in the field of collective bargaining. If and when a person or a family lags too far behind these changing standards, we feel a responsibility to help along, and this assistance is rendered through welfare agencies. Moreover, we do so more and more often as our cultural progress raises the standard of individual or community life. Responsibility for the welfare of the weaker element advances with the advance of civilization.

To utilize the work of welfare agencies in any community, it is, therefore, necessary to define the standards we set for ourselves in the various aspects of life. So far as help involves material assistance, and most instances of need mean inability to purchase what is wanted, welfare services involve largely economic assistance and relate to the poorer members of the community. In so far as help is needed because the individual needs guidance, advice, inspiration, or a healthy outlet for energies, welfare services go beyond material help; they seek to aid the individual in adjusting his difficulties, and they even call for cultural and artistic activities. Thus welfare services spread ever higher into the more favorably situated economic groups—indeed, into the community as a whole.

³*Final Report*, now in the press, chapter on Livelihood.

SOCIAL SERVICE BOUNDARIES

We may approach, then, the description of welfare agencies first by way of the question. What do we regard as reasonable things for people in our communities, and particularly for our children, to have? To the extent that these desirable things have to be purchased from the family income and the family cannot afford so to purchase them, welfare agencies are intended to supply the necessary assistance. Sometimes this assistance goes for the purchase of food, clothing, or shelter; sometimes it goes to purchase medical service, vacations, or recreation; sometimes it is used to provide a foster home for a child or vocational training for a youth or an adult.

Some things we never expect the family to buy directly from its own funds; we expect the community to provide them for all. Examples are: schooling for children; parks; safeguards against communicable diseases, control of milk and water supply; paving of streets that lead to dwellings; and protection from criminals. Then there are a number of things about which public opinion, policy, and customs change; there may be disagreement as to whether they are primarily the responsibility of the family—to be assisted by welfare agencies if need be—or the responsibility of the community (local, state, or Federal). Examples are: employment benefits; mental hygiene advice; and guidance for children manifesting behavior problems. In this area, therefore, there is and will continue to be some confusion as to whether the services provided are to be regarded as “welfare” or something else. Here, too, as in the case of economic assistance, there are differences of opinion on whether the services should be sponsored by private agencies, representing the charitable conscience and philanthropic interest of the benevolent, or by the public, under suitable legislation and from tax funds.

WHAT ALL CHILDREN SHOULD HAVE

As summarized by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, the needs that somehow must be met for each

child—whether through the family or through a government or welfare agency—are chiefly as follows:

Parents and Family Life.—Every child needs parents—needs them alive, well, self-supporting, and able to provide secure family life, love, affection, and early training in civilized life. So important is this to the child that if for one reason or another he is deprived of natural parents and family life, foster parents should be found, so that the greatest possible approximation to normal family life may be achieved.

Economic Security and Comfort.—This means a decent living on an acceptable American standard, including assurance of material support if income is jeopardized by illness, death, unemployment, incapacitation, or family disruption.

Decent Housing.—This includes safe shelter against the elements and against injury, infection, and ugliness; access to sun and light; space for decent and serene contact with other members of the family; reasonable privacy; and a location accessible to school, community, friends, and neighborly help.

Health.—This involves insuring health in the first place by favorable conditions surrounding birth and infancy, and particularly by protection of the mother during pregnancy and the months immediately after; preserving it by adequate public health administration, by immunizing against the most serious preventable defects and diseases, such as infant blindness, smallpox, and diphtheria; by health education of parent and child, by medical supervision, and by suitable and adequate nutrition; and recovering health through availability of doctor, nurse, clinic, hospital, and convalescent facilities, as well as through dental care and care of the eyes.

Protection.—Protection must be provided against unfit parents or guardians, too early labor, exploitation, neglect, immoral and criminal contacts, hazardous employment, fear, and anxiety.

Education and Training.—Education and training must be available at home, in school, at church, on the playground, and in community life; from early childhood in nursery school to vocational preparation and guidance in secondary school; through

educational guidance by competent teachers and religious training at home and in church. Indeed, education as conceived by modern leaders of thought may include any opportunity or activity that aids the child to grow into a mature, balanced, socially useful, and individually happy person.

DISTRIBUTING THE WORK

In view of these needs and the fact that they apply to every child and every family, it is clear that they must be met by a variety of resources: by the family first, and then by such municipal and governmental agencies as the health department, school system, hospitals, sanitary engineering, police, and housing authority, to mention but a few. The social welfare agencies may also, and often do, serve all the members of the community, or at least any who may wish to avail themselves of their services. But chiefly these agencies are intended to serve those families of the community whose incomes are in the lower brackets—from those actually in distress up to and including that one-half to two-thirds of the population whose income may be enough for some sort of self-support but is not always adequate to assure a satisfactory American standard of living.

I. Agencies Providing Economic Assistance

This is what we used to call relief, or, still earlier, charity. This service is given either by public tax-supported bodies or by voluntary organizations. There is a great variety of provisions over the country, and numerous combinations will be found from place to place. It would take volumes to describe it in sufficient detail, and the situation changes almost from day to day. To have a reasonably true picture of the available welfare agencies that give economic assistance at a given time in a given community, the local parent-teacher association would have to make a spot check-up. The following outline should, however, be helpful.

a. *Public Tax-Supported Welfare Agencies.*—All but 2 to 3 per cent of the hundreds of millions of dollars spent annually for this type of service during the recent years has come from

public funds. Therefore, from this point of view at least, public welfare agencies are of prime importance. Prior to 1933 all public relief was given—with only few exceptions—by the local municipality, village, town, or township. Local overseers of the poor were most frequently the relief officials, especially in rural areas; only the larger cities—and not all of these—had organized departments for the administration of relief. Local public relief agents rarely received funds from units larger than the county, and perhaps not very often from the county. The depression ushered in a new era, which still prevails and bids fair to become permanent. While the local relief agency is still the administrative unit in hundreds of municipalities, the state, generally speaking, has taken a firm and wide responsibility. The county rather than the township has become the principal local unit—except for large cities—and the Federal Government is a distant partner in the work. State and national governments provide considerable funds, supervision of the service, and much stimulation and guidance.

In most communities one may expect, therefore, to find a county or city department of public welfare responsible for economic assistance to the needy. (In November 1941 the state of Delaware was the only large exception to this rule; there the state directly administers the services. Of course, the District of Columbia is always an exception.) Often this department manages a variety of services that come under separate laws and different state or Federal departments, but in many places the several services are conducted by distinct bodies. In any case the welfare department of the city or county is the chief source of information as to where the various services may be had.

Roughly speaking, this is what the welfare department offers (or is made available by a group of county or city agencies):

Aid to mothers who have children under sixteen years of age but no responsible male adult person to support them.

Aid to blind persons who are unable to support themselves.

Old age assistance to those above sixty-five years of age who are unable to support themselves.

Assistance to persons or families who for any other reason are in economic distress, whether because the person responsible for support is ill, is unemployed, is underemployed, or has insufficient income for support on a decent and safe level.

Economic aid to veterans under various local or state programs enacted for their benefit.

WPA work assignment, or in some cases referral to opportunities offered by the NYA and similar governmental agencies.

Authorization for free medical assistance, which in some cases means a doctor or a nurse and in other cases clinical treatment, hospitalization, or any of a variety of medical services, from provision of eye-glasses to convalescent care.

Child placement and support in a foster home or in an institution.

Arrangement for admission to an institution (usually conducted by the state) for the care of mentally defective, physically handicapped, insane, epileptic, tuberculous, or otherwise chronically incapacitated persons.

There is, it must be remembered, no absolute uniformity about these things. Here and there the juvenile court instead of the welfare department places dependent children; in some places (e.g., Delaware) there is no local public welfare agency. In many communities the various services listed are separately administered, and unfortunately there are hundreds of places where ordinary everyday "relief" is not available from any public body, even though there may be assistance to the aged, veterans, or widows. Worst of all, perhaps, and this is one of the most disgraceful blots on our welfare program, in many places a destitute person may receive no help or only the minimum required in an emergency if he does not have "legal settlement" in the community or state. Often other conditions of eligibility are equally serious handicaps; for example, citizenship, length of residence, or technical property ownership.

It might well be regarded as a general rule or standard that a community is meeting its welfare obligations only if it has in its immediate set-up or under accessible county administration a public welfare department that directly or indirectly provides

the services listed, and has suitable arrangement with the state (and through the state with certain Federal bodies) for financial supplementation, supervision, and guidance of its work.

Information on this subject may best be obtained from three major sources: in Washington, D. C., from the Federal Security Agency and its publications and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor; and in Chicago, from the American Public Welfare Association.

b. *Privately Supported Agencies for Economic Assistance.*—Prior to the depression we used to think of these "private charities" as the only relief agencies in existence, even though by law and in fact overseers of the poor have been operating in this country practically from the time of its settlement. The most generally distributed "private charities" are those that have denominational origins or connections. Individual churches usually have some provision to help their "poor," through the minister, a deacon, or some other agent. In some churches the relief function has been, in addition, definitely organized. This is true, for example, of the Salvation Army and of the St. Vincent de Paul Society in the Catholic Church. Then we have relief arrangements in fraternal and mutual aid societies under a variety of auspices and organizations. In the larger cities of the country, however, the most extensive and highly organized system of economic assistance has been conducted during the greater part of the past half century by family welfare societies (earlier called charity organization societies).

In many of the largest cities these are the agencies that carried the major burden in helping the destitute for the years prior to the depression. Even where public welfare departments are well established and carry the burden of relief, these family welfare agencies still carry on their relief work. This is done to provide for persons not legally eligible for public assistance or to offer assistance beyond what the law allows if the individual situation seems to require it. It is done also in order to prevent family disruption when some specialized program of economic help may fend off the trouble.

Wherever such a private welfare agency exists, whether under denominational or nonsectarian auspices, it is well for the parent-teacher group to become acquainted with it and draw it into its community contacts. There are, of course, only a few hundred of these agencies, not counting those affiliated with the churches, and almost none in the rural areas. Also they tend to combine other social service functions and to become less and less private welfare agencies offering economic assistance exclusively.

II. Agencies Dealing with Problems of Children

Child welfare work used to be regarded as a separate and distinct kind of social welfare work. Children in need of help used to be thought of more or less separately and were labeled as neglected, dependent, delinquent, and handicapped children. Nowadays we are aware of the fact that the vast majority of children, even when they become social problems and require social services, are members of families. While we still have separate social welfare agencies dealing with children, such as children's aid societies, as well as children's homes, these agencies tend more and more to be combined with agencies that deal with the family as a whole. This tendency also appears to dominate the public field, where administrative services dealing with public assistance to families and to dependent children are combined as far as possible under the same bodies, both on the local and on the state level of operation.

Many communities will continue to have special welfare agencies devoted to children, but access to these will increasingly be through the family agency, which usually will mean the public welfare agency. Increasingly, also, the public school will take on responsibility for service to children under its own sponsorship. This service may include guidance in behavior problems, vocational guidance, health supervision, and nutritional service (school lunches). It is safe to say, then, that children's agencies may be looked for in some communities but that most of their purposes may be served by the public welfare agencies and by the school system.

Two types of services for children deserve special mention in this connection. One is in the field of health and medical care, which is becoming less and less the obligation of the so-called public welfare agency and more and more that of the public health department and other health agencies. The other is service to the so-called delinquent child or the child with troublesome behavior problems. As the community progresses in giving the child adequate recreational facilities, well-organized, modern schools, good health care, and opportunities for parents to make a living and to be helped in their various problems, the number of occasions for juvenile delinquency will diminish and the need for the juvenile court will become less pressing. Nevertheless, for some time to come there will be in most communities some children who tend to be designated as delinquents and who appear to require formal court disposition. For these the children's court has been established.

III. *The Children's Court*

Depending largely on the size of the community and on the legislative history of the several states, the juvenile court may be an entirely separate organization from the rest of the judicial machinery; it may be a separate session of some existing court; or it may be represented by particular powers to be exercised by the judge in the cases of children usually under sixteen years of age (in some places, under eighteen). The juvenile court has a long and varied history in this country. The latest and most modern representatives of the institution are usually associated with some mental hygiene clinic or guidance clinic. In reviewing the existing juvenile court facilities in any community, the following standards may be useful to bear in mind:

1. Preferably it should not deal with "dependent children," that is, with the control of economic assistance to the child, whether in its home or by assignment to a foster home or an institution. This should be primarily an activity of the public welfare department.
2. Whether there should be a separate court or a separate session or a separate judge or some other form of provision should depend

upon the number of such children to be dealt with; no absolute and rigid standard can be adopted. Whatever judge is assigned to the task should, however, be particularly qualified not only for personal character and fitness but also by previous interest and contact with the problems of children or with other social service activities.

3. No juvenile court under any system can adequately carry on its work unless it has available well-trained social service personnel, whether under its own jurisdiction or by arrangement with a school, a public welfare agency, or a private agency. The qualifications of a judge are not necessarily the same as the qualifications of the person who guides the child through a period of adjustment.

4. Great care should be exercised to assure adequate study of a child brought before the court for behavior problems. Some physical, psychological, or family trouble may be responsible for his behavior, and, if so, suitable treatment should be given. The easiest role of a court, and usually the least satisfactory, is that of an instrument for commitment to an institution. The heart of the problem, it may well be repeated, is the life of the child at home and in school and in the hygienic and recreational environment of the community. It is particularly important not to create the impression that juvenile delinquents are a special sort of children, separate and distinct from others.

IV. Agencies Providing Normal Recreation for Children

As a matter of pure theory, it is not the social welfare agency that should provide recreation. This is the business of the family as far as it can afford it; of the school as far as it is modern enough to recognize the obligation; of the park and playground provisions of the community, state, and nation; and of specialized agencies, such as community centers, Y.M.C.A.'s, Boy Scouts, and so on. Recreation has been taken on by social welfare agencies principally because in so many instances families of children could not afford, in the midst of their economic worries, to give either time or money toward necessary recreation. While, therefore, recreation is not necessarily a social welfare agency job, many welfare agencies do carry on recreational work. Among them are

settlement houses, boys' clubs, community centers, parish houses, and various youth organizations. Because these agencies serve primarily the low income groups who tend to be deprived of recreational opportunities and because, in fact, they have regarded themselves as welfare agencies, it is well to include them within this category.

COORDINATION OF SOCIAL SERVICES; ROLE OF THE P.T.A.

There are some very good reasons why parent-teacher associations should make direct contact with the entire front occupied by social welfare agencies. Some of the reasons are perhaps just as important as the contact itself.

For one thing, the welfare services and their organization in a given community reflect public opinion. It is well that they should reflect an informed and intelligent public opinion and one that is more interested in the real well-being of the people than in vested interests, whether political, economic, or social. The parent-teacher association may be assumed to comprise such a body of informed and intelligent persons and should therefore be an important factor in creating public opinion.

In the second place, there should be a nice balance in social welfare policy making between professional personnel and the citizen-taxpayer. The parent is the most important citizen-taxpayer. Then again, when the child is the central focus of interest, no group can be more directly interested or have more at stake than the parent, and his "vested interest" in the child is of a different nature from that of a politician, an office holder, or a professional employee. Another reason—and a very important one—for active interest in welfare agencies by the parent group is the fact that these agencies, as has been indicated, deal with services that affect a large body—in fact, the majority of the people, extending from the lowest income group up into much higher economic levels. The parent-teacher association will be one of the best cross sections of the population when it truly represents the wide parent citizenship of the community.

There is one thing that demands particular and active interest

by parents and teachers in the coordinative agencies that deal with social welfare. It is the fact that many of the welfare services to the child, the adult, and the family are given by a variety of important bodies which are not themselves strictly welfare agencies, but whose programs and activities overlap and are intertwined with the work of welfare agencies; all these bodies can usually be reached through coordinating groups, of which, perhaps, in the larger cities, the council of social agencies is most important. In many rural communities, nowadays, county planning bodies have this function. Here and there a community chest or a so-called community council does the coordinating work.

Here are some of the most important organizations that are in and out of the welfare field, are indispensable to it, and supplement and reinforce as well as partly overlap its work:

The school system, most important of all.

The public health department, almost equally important; and other health agencies, such as visiting nurses, tuberculosis association, hospitals, and at present the Red Cross.

The park system—municipal, county, regional, or national.

The courts—particularly the probation personnel in the children's court and the domestic relations court, where these exist.

The public bodies that operate the insurance systems under the Federal Security Act and those that are responsible for workmen's compensation.

It is, of course, not always or everywhere that these bodies are all affiliated with the social welfare agencies on an equal or a proportionate level. But they *should* be; and the parent-teacher association may be one of the groups that promote and encourage this coordination. If the child is the center of interest, then whatever organizations serve the child should be able to pool and coordinate their activities. If this involves both public and private agencies, they should find a way to work together. If the child is rarely an independent individual but prospers or suffers as a member of a family; if a variety of social welfare agencies exist that may serve the family, then in the interest of the child,

if for no other reason, they should be enabled to work together. If the public is resistant to the work of these agencies, or indifferent to them, or uninformed about them, and if the coordinating body can help obtain and develop public support, then the parent-teacher association should seek to stimulate and to help in this task of public interpretation and to take on such tasks as may promote these ends; for that is one way to create and foster an efficient democratic community. Parents and teachers, as the natural guardians and guides of the new generation, cannot afford to neglect any opportunity to serve in this direction. True and enduring democracy is the hope of humanity. There can be no higher human responsibility than that which pledges the forward-looking citizen to its support and its perpetuation.

CHAPTER VIII

CHARACTER ON THE AMERICAN PLAN

HOMER P. RAINEY

Educationally prominent for a number of years, Homer P. Rainey won special acclaim for distinguished work as director of the American Youth Commission. Dr. Rainey has been president of the University of Texas since 1939. He is also a noted author, his books, monographs, and magazine articles on education having won him a large and appreciative public.

IF EVER the importance of a supremely important factor in human life can be said to have increased, the significance of character education has increased within the past few months and years. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that our national consciousness of the dire need of sturdy character and unassailable fortitude in the suddenly shifting and often terrifying changes of modern life has been heightened and intensified.

When we speak of "building character," however, we speak in simple terms of an undertaking that is anything but simple. Through the years of trial and error, by making our mistakes and rectifying them, we have arrived at the sure knowledge that certain policies and activities do accomplish definite things in this direction, and these things we emphasize in a hundred ways. We know that teamplay and sharing in childhood are the foundation stones for an abiding adult belief in the principle of human brotherhood. We know that achievement in youth generates adult self-confidence and the fine courage that is based solidly on an inner assurance of competence and adequacy. We know that self-control and self-discipline acquired in the early years build patience, endurance, and strength for future demands. We know that a sense of fairness developed in play and other group activities is the germ of that broader function of conscience, the passion for right that cannot "be still and see injustice done."

Accordingly, we strive to place within reach of our children the

activities and opportunities out of which these qualities grow. We cannot overemphasize their importance, not only to the individual child but to the nation and the world. When the war is over there will be such need of these enduring attributes as has never before been encountered. It is a task for moral giants. And it cannot be an individual matter. What are we doing as communities to meet the situation?

In the life of every community in our nation there are numerous organizations designed to improve the welfare and the well-being of our people. The purposes of these organizations are as varied as the life and needs of the people. It would seem that, wherever any clearly defined human or community need has arisen, some sort of community organization has appeared to meet that need. Careful studies have revealed that throughout our nation as a whole there are probably more than 400 national organizations (excluding governmental agencies) that in one way or another are set up to serve the welfare of American youth. Each of these organizations has a national headquarters and a national program extending into as many communities in the nation as it is able to reach effectively. The number of these organizations represented in a given community depends primarily, of course, upon the size of that community. However, there is scarcely an organized community of any size today in which one or more of them is not represented.

It is very difficult indeed to classify these organizations with respect to the impact they make upon the individual persons whom they serve. It is especially difficult to classify them with relation to their contribution to character education or character building, since the factors in human life that contribute to the development of character are so many and so varied as almost to defy analysis. It might well be argued that any organization that provides the individual with an opportunity to participate in any phase of a worth-while human activity makes a definite contribution to the development of his character and personality. Certainly character and personality find one of their chief sources of development in participation in group activities. Such op-

portunities of participation lead also to the development of qualities of leadership. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that they are of the essence of our democratic virtues and are indispensable to it. Looked at, therefore, from these rather broad social points of view, it will be clearly seen that almost any type of wholesome group experience has a definite influence upon the development of character and personality.

There are, however, in the United States a number of organizations whose purpose is definitely directed toward the building of character, and many of these have comprehensive programs of activity designed especially for that purpose. It is our plan in this chapter, therefore, to mention in rather broad outline the structures, purposes, and programs of the most important of these agencies.

GENERAL CHARACTER-BUILDING ORGANIZATIONS FOR YOUTH

Under this classification we can identify a number of significant organizations that seek improvement of the morals and character of youth without emphasis upon any particular religious or sectarian doctrine. Some of the most important and influential are:

The American Junior Red Cross.—This organization in 1940 reported a membership of more than 8,588,000. It is organized entirely through the schools, the unit in each case being a room in an elementary school or a group of 100 students in a secondary school. For a membership in the elementary school there is a fee of fifty cents for the group. There is a fee of one dollar for every 100 students or fraction thereof in the secondary school. This organization has stated: "We believe in service for others, in health of mind and body to fit us for better service, and in world-wide friendship. For this reason we are joining the American Junior Red Cross. We will help to make its work successful in our school and community and will work together with Juniors everywhere in our own and other lands."

The Junior Red Cross carries on a rather extensive program of local, national, and international activity. It has a national

headquarters at Eighteenth and D and E Streets, N.W., Washington, D. C. It has a staff of twenty-six full-time paid employees and issues a number of publications annually.

Boy and Girl Scout Organizations.—Perhaps the most extensive and best known among these character-building organizations for youth are the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts. The Boy Scouts now number more than 1,429,000 and have more than 350,000 volunteer adult leaders and as many as 1,381 professional paid Scout executives. The purpose of the organization is “to produce, maintain, and advance conditions such that boys may further their own wholesome self-activity and experience out of which citizenship and character values accrue.” Its national headquarters is located at 2 Park Avenue, New York City. The Boy Scout movement is designed for boys from 12 years of age upward, but it has an auxiliary “Cub Program” for boys aged 9 to 11.

The Girl Scouts are separately organized, with national headquarters at 14 W. 49th Street, New York City. The membership, including the junior auxiliary, the “Brownie Scouts,” is composed of girls aged 7 to 18, and there are more than 636,900 members. Its purpose is “to prepare girls for their places in a self-governing society through fostering personal initiative and a sense of responsibility for others that will make them good citizens and good neighbors; through a play time program to encourage the girl to learn and practice cultural and domestic arts and to develop an enduring love of the outdoors; to help girls make for themselves the necessary transfer during adolescence from outer to inner control and to know their own talents, tastes, and aptitudes.” This organization carries on extensive activities covering a wide range of interests, such as personal health, first aid, scholarship, camping, and hiking.

Boys' Clubs of America, Inc.—Boys' Clubs of America, Inc., is a very extensive organization. It now has a membership of more than a quarter of a million youths between the ages of 12 and 25. Its purpose is “to stimulate and promote the Boys' Club movement.” The national headquarters is located at 381 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Some of its chief activities are making

community surveys of boy-life conditions, organizing and conducting training courses for workers with boys, and advising and assisting local clubs with their problems. Local clubs carry on varied activities, determined largely by the needs and opportunities in their respective communities. Chief among these local activities are athletic and recreational projects, such as teaching boys to swim, passing Junior Red Cross tests, passing Senior Red Cross tests, and the like; health activities, which include the giving of health examinations to many thousands of boys each year and actual medical and dental treatment in clinics maintained for this purpose. Boys' Clubs of America, Inc., also sponsors musical and vocational organizations for boys.

Camp Fire Girls.—This is an organization of more than a quarter of a million girls from the ages of 8 to 16, whose purpose is "to offer girls an opportunity to participate in enjoyable activities which broaden their interests, cultivate their skills, develop habits and attitudes consistent with good character. . . ."

Chief among its activities are community service, play, hiking, parties, camps, and other collective enterprises. The national headquarters of this organization is at 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City. It has more than 13,000 constituent groups, located in more than 1,000 communities in the United States.

Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States of America.—The work of these two organizations is well known. The Young Men's Christian Association's purpose is "to promote health and physical fitness; to assist men and boys in finding and organizing clean and refreshing social life and recreation; to encourage study of all religions and the application of Christian ideals to the rebuilding of a better society; to promote racial and religious tolerance and world peace; to advance education and the welfare of family and community. Its national headquarters is at 347 Madison Avenue, New York City. It numbers in its membership more than 1,316,500 boys between the ages of 9 or 10 to 25 and upward. It has more than 1,100 local associations, with over 700 buildings in cities throughout the country. These buildings usually in-

clude low-price dormitory and dining facilities, swimming pools and gymnasiums, reading rooms, classrooms, and lecture halls. The Y.M.C.A. also sponsors many auxiliary clubs for boys and young men. More than 112,000 such clubs were in operation in 1939. It also organizes clubs in the high school, known as Hi-Y Clubs. Such organizations probably include as many as 200,500 members.

The Young Women's Christian Association's purpose is "to build a fellowship of women and girls devoted to the task of realizing in our common life these ideals of personal and social living to which we are committed by our faith as Christians." The national headquarters for this organization is at 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. It claims an individual membership among young women of more than 548,000 of whom the greater part are between the ages of 12 and 25. It has several hundred local associations in city, town, and rural communities and also several hundred in student communities. It, like the Y.M.C.A., maintains buildings in many cities throughout the country. These buildings also contain dormitory and dining facilities, classrooms, gymnasiums, and lecture halls. It also sponsors Girl Reserve units in all types of communities, urban and rural.

Allied Youth.—This organization, with headquarters at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., has a membership of approximately 10,000. It has more than 100 chartered posts in the United States, Hawaii, and Alaska. Its purpose is to promote wholesome recreation and effective education against alcohol. A speakers' bureau and a publications program are maintained.

RELIGIOUS YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS

All the major religious groups, Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish, sponsor numerous organizations designed to promote the religious and moral idealism of youth. These activities are varied and extensive in all the religious groups and are too numerous to mention in detail in this chapter. Any local pastor, priest, or rabbi is in a position to provide information regarding all types of organizations in his own religious field.

PATRIOTIC, POLITICAL, FRATERNAL, AND LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

In discussing character-building organizations for youth, it is necessary to identify certain organizations under the following four classifications:

Patriotic.—Among the patriotic organizations should be mentioned the American Legion. In addition to supporting established character-building youth groups, the Legion has its own youth organizations, the Junior Auxiliary and Sons of the American Legion. It sponsors Boys' State and Girls' State for firsthand training in citizenship. It has organized the Junior Baseball program, sometimes called the "Little World Series," to build citizens through sportsmanship.

Political.—Practically all of the major political parties, especially during campaign years, develop youth organizations throughout the country, the purpose of which is to disseminate information concerning national issues and to enlist youth in active political participation.

Fraternal.—A number of the leading fraternal organizations in the country promote youth divisions whose chief purpose is to develop youth organizations in harmony with the ideals and purposes of the major fraternal groups sponsoring them.

Labor.—The principal labor organizations have programs designed to render service to youth and also to develop their interest in, and support of, the objectives of the labor movement.

AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL LIFE ORGANIZATIONS

A chapter on character-building organizations cannot overlook the varied and extensive programs now being carried on by the agricultural and rural life organizations of the country. Extensive work of very high quality is being provided to American rural youth through many rural organizations. Among the more important of these organizations are:

The American Country Life Association.—The purpose of this association is "to be of service in the building of a rural civilization finer than any the world has yet known, with emphasis on

social development, not merely on economic improvement." The aim of the Youth Section is "to promote discussion of rural life problems, to disseminate information for a better understanding and appreciation of country life, and to work for improvement in rural areas."

The American Farm Bureau Federation.—This organization numbers more than 1,500,000 members, of whom more than 600,000 are between the ages of 12 and 25.

4-H Clubs.—Among the agencies working in the field of rural youth, the 4-H Clubs are outstanding. These clubs are a phase of the agricultural and extension service of the United States Department of Agriculture and are operated in connection with state agricultural colleges. They include rural boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 20. There are more than 78,500 clubs in the United States and territories and more than 1,528,900 members. The purposes of these clubs are: "to help rural boys and girls develop desirable ideals and standards for farming, homemaking, community life and citizenship and a sense of responsibility for their attainment; to train them in cooperative action, in healthful living, in the intelligent use of leisure and in the continuous pursuit of learning." Their activities are very extensive. Each local club is supposed to have a self-determined program designed to meet its own community needs. These programs include more than 30 different phases of homemaking and farm demonstration.

Future Farmers of America.—Another outstanding rural organization is the Future Farmers of America, which is organized under the Division of Vocational Education of the U.S. Office of Education. The purpose of this organization is "to strengthen the confidence of the farm boy in himself and his work; to create more interest in the intelligent choice of farming occupations; to create and nurture a love of country life; to improve the rural home and its surroundings; to encourage cooperative effort; to promote thrift; to improve scholarship; and to encourage organized recreational activities." There are now more than 6,800 local chapters of the Future Farmers of America in 47 states, Hawaii, and

Puerto Rico, and more than 230,000 individual members. This organization also carries on extensive activities relating to farm problems, such as conducting livestock judging contests, forums and other public speaking exercises, and a great variety of community service projects.

COMMERCIAL AND SERVICE CLUBS

The leading service clubs of the country, such as Rotary, Kiwanis, and Lions, are sponsoring numerous types of community activity that may definitely be classified as character-building in nature. These organizations usually have a "Boys' Work Committee," a "Boys' Work Council," or some other such organization that promotes community activities for youth. The aim of practically all of these boys' work committees is to sponsor activities that will make better citizens of the boys and to cooperate with all other community agencies for this purpose.

In this connection also should be mentioned the work of the United States Junior Chambers of Commerce, whose purposes include teaching civic responsibility and developing active participation and leadership on the part of young men in their respective communities.

LEISURE AND RECREATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Some very fine character-building activities unquestionably are being carried on through various types of leisure and recreational organizations. These organizations are many and varied. Among them are included:

The American Camping Association.—The purpose of this association is "to further the interests and welfare of children and adults through camping as an educative, recreative, and character-developing experience." Undoubtedly the camping movement is one of the important agencies contributing to the welfare of American youth.

The National Recreation Association.—The purpose of this association is "to give every child in America a chance to play; to

give all persons, young and old, an opportunity to find the best and most satisfying use of leisure time."

Others.—In addition to these there are numerous special recreational organizations covering practically every phase of American leisure-time interests, such as art and music, folk activities, nature associations, fishing and hunting organizations, garden clubs, and dramatic organizations.

The outline of character-building organizations and their activities given above is a very partial and sketchy one and is only indicative of the types of organizations that exist; it does not in any way attempt to be inclusive. The statements concerning the purposes and activities of these organizations were taken from a significant publication of the American Youth Commission, *Youth-Serving Organizations*, by M. M. Chambers, published by the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. For a full and complete statement of the activities of all of these organizations the reader is referred to this document. It is indispensable to any individual or organization interested in the problems of American youth.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS COOPERATE

It is at once apparent to the thoughtful citizen that much of the effectiveness of any of these organizations, so far as character building is concerned, depends upon the cooperative support they receive from one another and from the community at large. "Moral support," a phrase frequently heard but not often taken very seriously, is actually a mighty influence. A youth who belongs to any one of the character-building organizations will profit from its principles only as those principles are supported by his own experience at home, in school, and in the community. If his parents or his teachers or his friends scoff at the organization or ignore its recommendations, he himself is not likely to be valuable to the organization and the organization cannot possibly be valuable to him.

The parent-teacher association, accordingly, has always maintained a firsthand and vital relationship with these time-tested

organizations. It has taken them seriously indeed. It has given them not only moral support but material assistance by working side by side with them in carrying out their programs. It has endeavored to help them correlate their activities in such a way that the young person at home, at school, and in the community may obtain the maximum benefit, without too much overlapping of the various activities that compete for his time and attention.

Naturally, then, when the cry arose for "morale," the parent-teacher association had merely to accentuate and intensify its cooperative efforts in support of the work of these agencies. Morale is the inevitable, almost the automatic, result of character. The principles of good morale are the same principles on which character-building agencies are founded. And this is no news to the parent-teacher association, whose own principles are fundamentally similar. The present world scene is a challenge to more dynamic action, but it involves no essential change of outlook; and the association, therefore, may expect to have a generous share in that most difficult and most rewarding of all tasks, the upbuilding of a national character that can "take it"—uncomplainingly, unflinchingly, and as long as the need shall endure.

CHAPTER IX

HEALTH FOR DEMOCRACY'S CHILDREN

IRA V. HISCOCK

Ira V. Hiscock is well known as professor of public health at Yale University. He has been connected with the Connecticut State Department of Health and the city health departments of New Haven, Connecticut, and Columbia and Greenville, South Carolina. He is the chairman of the Advisory Committee on Health of the Connecticut Department of Education and a frequent contributor to health periodicals.

HEALTH is a treasure. A firm foundation of health is essential to a future of happy and successful generations. The prosperity and progress of a community depend upon the mental and physical condition of its members. Health means more than postponement of death and prevention of illness and incapacity; it means something positive—a feeling of well-being, with the accompanying joys and satisfactions. With these facts in mind, we are concerned in this discussion with the health of all the men, women, and children who make up a community.

Communities differ in resources and in problems that may affect health. Furthermore, public understanding of health work lags far behind scientific knowledge and current practice. To bridge the gap and to promote sound health practice are aims of health education carried on by official and voluntary agencies and organizations, including parent-teacher associations. It is important to remember that a community, whether rural or urban, is composed of biological and sociological units, and that each of these units—that is, each family—must be considered as a whole, with due regard for the variations in age, race, education, occupation, and religion, with all the resulting mixture of beliefs, superstitions, and traditions. Although our communities are perhaps more health-conscious than ever before, much remains to be done through joint planning and cooperative action.

Long before the wave of enthusiasm for physical fitness swept over the country as a result of examination of those called to service in World War II, there were efforts to combat a widespread indifference on the part of the public in general to the human body and its needs, especially among those responsible for the care of children and youth. Among these constructive efforts were those of the parent-teacher organization. Its objectives were significant. "The movement," said one of its founders, "is not a reformative one, it is a formative one. Our aim is to lead mothers not in reforming their children, but in forming them, morally, physically, and mentally. Neither is it a philanthropic organization. Its function is obviously as much in the interest of puny, neglected, overfed, underexercised children of the rich as in the interest of the children of the poor. . . . What deplorable ignorance do we not see on all sides, ignorance not only of the temperaments of children, but ignorance of their physical needs." With this conception in mind, the elements of a community health program will be presented with special reference to the contributions of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The basis of satisfactory public health work in any community is a well-organized health department, adequately financed and staffed with trained personnel. The department needs the cooperation of local physicians, dentists, and other professional persons, as well as the support of an understanding public. With this backing and with suitable laws and ordinances, a well-rounded community health program, if it is carefully planned on a long-term basis, may be developed and effectively administered.¹ The voluntary, or nonofficial, agency occupies a place in such a program for the conduct of important activities for which the local official agency is usually not equipped or ready; for the support of adequate standards of service; for the education of the public; and for experimentation and demonstration in pioneer fields.

The scope of activity has broadened during this century to include not alone environmental sanitation and the control of acute

¹ Ira V. Hiscock. *Community Health Organization; and Ways to Community Health Education*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1939.

infections but education in principles of personal health, education in maternal and child health, and the development of medical and nursing service for the early diagnosis and preventive treatment of disease, in health centers and homes. Increasing recognition is being given to the social aspects of medicine and public health.

EVERY COMMUNITY'S NEEDS

While problems of public health vary in different communities and states, there are many common principles for a program of health work. There are features that require collective or official action. For example, the maintenance of a safe public water supply, the proper disposal of wastes, the assurance of a pure milk supply, and the application of fundamental principles of the hygiene of food handling, especially in urban areas, are for the most part beyond the control of the individual citizen. Even if a group of children goes to a summer camp, the agency that operates the camp needs the guidance and help of local and state health authorities to insure that these requirements for environmental sanitation are met. Other problems require measures for public control, although the success of these measures depends upon intelligent individual cooperation; control of communicable disease is an example.

Some phases of community health work are within the control of the individual but are properly a concern of the local government in that they involve community measures designed for the advancement of public health and welfare; these relate to the customs and habits of life, and the Government's participation has been largely educational. There are two types of clinic or dispensary service. One is designed primarily for educational purposes for the apparently well, for example, the child health conference; the other is designed to furnish medical and surgical treatment for the sick who are unable to afford a private physician. It is anticipated that in educational matters the health program should be designed as far as possible to reach the entire community.

The private physician and dentist occupy key positions and can have an important influence upon community health; they should be given the opportunity of participating actively and must in turn

accept the responsibilities that accompany the opportunity. The public generally, however, is not accustomed to demand or to pay privately for guidance in the application of preventive medicine to individual or community health problems. Hence the program of local health work must provide for activities that will: (1) carry out the legal responsibilities in disease control imposed by law; (2) offer those facilities for institutional care (communicable disease, gonorrhea, syphilis, tuberculosis), laboratory service, and diagnostic aid which the individual patient cannot provide for himself alone; (3) stimulate a public demand for preventive health services; (4) supplement the services of the private physician and the private dentist in the community; and (5) aid in developing the interest and ability of physicians and dentists to render preventive health services.

More specifically, the functions of a community health program may be briefly outlined as follows:

1. *Vital Statistics.*—The sound conduct of health work is governed by the careful analysis of information obtained from the registration of births, marriages, and deaths and from records of cases of disease.

2. *Control of Epidemics and Communicable Disease.*—Effective control of communicable disease depends on prompt reporting of cases to health authorities, investigation of sources and means of spread, and elimination of avenues of infection. Consulting diagnostic services are necessary. Protective measures against diphtheria and smallpox, and in some areas against typhoid fever, should be widely applied. For example, if diphtheria occurs in a preschool child, someone is to blame. Facilities are necessary for early diagnosis and modern treatment of pneumonia.

A health department should aim to obtain full reporting of all cases of tuberculosis and to maintain a systematic register of all such cases, not only that each patient may be so cared for as not to be a menace to others, but that he may receive the necessary medical and nursing care, either at home or in an institution. Adequate clinical and X-ray facilities and consulting diagnostic services, as a part of early case-finding procedures and a supplement to the services of private physicians, are essential.

A program for the control of venereal diseases includes educational, recreational, social, and medical measures.²

3. *Maternal and Child Health.*—The modern conception of an adequate program includes provision for antepartum and obstetrical care and for infant, preschool, and school health. By the full use of medical services provided by private physicians, clinics, and hospitals and with the assistance of public health nursing organizations and other available resources, we may hope to lessen maternal mortality and stillbirths; to increase the vitality of children born alive; to safeguard them through the most dangerous periods of their lives; to prevent and correct their disabling defects; to pass a larger proportion of them into school in good condition; and to graduate them from school better able to carry on the business of living. Increased emphasis should be given to the provision of a sound dental health program and to conservation of vision and of hearing. Ideally, a continuous record of every child should be maintained by the family pediatrician or the child health conference, which could be passed on, at least in summary form, to the school upon entrance. The school health program should embrace measures of health protection, health guidance, and health education, with due attention to the health of teachers as well as of pupils.

4. *Public Health Nursing.*—The program of modern public health may be measured by the extent to which the public health nursing service has been developed. "Public health nursing includes all nursing services organized by a community or agency to assist in carrying out any or all phases of the public health program. Services may be rendered on an individual, family, or community basis in home, school, clinic, business establishment, or office of the agency."³ For teaching the individual the principles of healthful living and for bringing him into timely contact with the medical resources of the community, the public health nurse has proved her value.

5. *Laboratory.*—A well-organized laboratory is needed to provide

² Thomas Parran and R. A. Vonderlehr. *Plain Words About Venereal Diseases*. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1941. See also *High Schools and Sex Education*, by B. C. Gruenberg. Ed. Pub. No. 7; Washington, D. C.: U. S. Public Health Service, 1939.

³ *Functions in Public Health Nursing*. New York: National Organization for Public Health Nursing, p. 1. Reprinted from *Public Health Nursing*, Nov., 1936.

free diagnostic service, to aid in the sanitary control of milk and water supplies, and to carry on research in public health.

6. *Mental Hygiene*.—There should be made available to the community a comprehensive program of mental hygiene for children and adults, including mental hospital facilities, psychiatric clinic or consultation services, and psychiatric social service.

7. *Industrial Hygiene*.—Increased attention must be given to the provision of soundly conceived programs of industrial hygiene through the cooperation and joint participation of local, state, and national health agencies and industrial groups.

8. *Nutrition*.—The consulting services of a specialist in nutrition are needed by educational, health, and welfare agencies.

9. *Inspection*.—An inspection service should be maintained for the control of milk supplies from the source to the point of delivery, for the systematic inspection of food-handling establishments, and for general nuisance inspection and the supervision of housing conditions in the local community.

10. *Public Health Education*.—The dominant characteristic of the modern public health program is its emphasis on public health education. Every opportunity should be utilized to create citizen interest in personal and public health, to share with the people in the community all information regarding health activities and developments in public health, and to prepare the community for participation in the community health program.

ASPECTS OF GOVERNMENTAL PARTICIPATION

Laws, codes, and regulations pertaining to health are in general well developed throughout the country, but they need continuing study and periodic revision. Model health codes have been issued by several state health departments; these may serve as guides to local health authorities within the particular state to which they apply.⁴ Suggestions as to subjects that may be covered in local health legislation may be obtained from the American Public Health Association and from the United States Public Health Service. Much attention is being given to the establishment of personnel qualifications and of merit systems.

⁴ James A. Tobey. *Public Health Law*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1939.

Under the American system of government, the care of the public health has been regarded as primarily the responsibility of each of the individual states and of the political subdivisions. But the Federal Government also has a definite responsibility for national health, which is well established in several Federal agencies. The agencies of most concern in this chapter are the Public Health Service and the Office of Education administered under the Federal Security Agency, the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor, and the Bureau of the Census in the Department of Commerce. Experience has shown that the constructive development of public health work in the United States cannot proceed in an orderly manner without guidance and assistance from the Federal Government and that it requires the cooperation and stimulation provided by the national voluntary health agencies, several of which are housed together with the National Health Council.

As recently as 1936, only a relatively small proportion of local and state health departments had developed personnel and service that could be rated as a satisfactory minimum for the population and the existing problems. The passage of the Social Security Act by the Seventy-Fourth Congress and of a subsequent act for the control of venereal diseases made available funds for the training of personnel and for the development and stimulation of health services. These provisions stimulated further appropriations for local and state departments. Recognition was thus given to the fact that there is urgent need of a more adequate public health program, reaching both the centers of population and the far corners of rural areas, if the people of the nation are to receive the care that they deserve and that scientific health service will give them.

Every state has created an organization to administer its public health activities. Among the usual administrative duties of state health departments are the state-wide and intercommunity control of communicable disease; the provision of public health laboratory services; the collection of vital statistics; the promotion of maternal and child health and in some instances of school health (in most states administered by the board of education); the conduct of public health engineering and of industrial hygiene services; the

control of milk and food supplies (in some states administered by a separate department or by the department of agriculture); the conduct of necessary research; the education and instruction of the public in health and sanitation; and the general supervision of county and local health activities. The degree of control over local health administration by the state varies.

In many states the county is an important unit of government, well suited, because of its size, its density of population, and its taxable wealth, for effective health administration. The number of county or district health units organized on a full-time basis has more than doubled since the passage of the Social Security Act.

An adequate budget is absolutely necessary for an efficient public health program. A sum is needed to make possible organized health activities up to the limit of our knowledge of sanitary science and health administration. State expenditures for hygienic purposes vary from one state to another but, exclusive of funds provided through the Federal Government and foundations, rarely reach 20 cents per capita per annum. The local appropriation should be measured against \$2.50 as the annual per capita expenditure, exclusive of general hospitalization, garbage collection, and so on, which would provide a reasonably comprehensive and well-balanced community health program. This latter figure includes provision for many types of service, such as child health, mental hygiene, nutrition, maintenance of a tuberculosis clinic, and public health nursing, which are frequently performed to some extent by private agencies. It should be emphasized that such an appropriation represents a very small fraction of the tax budget or of governmental expenditures for other purposes. While there is a tendency for official agencies to undertake more and more activities, which is gratifying at least up to a certain point, it has been well said by Sir Arthur Newsholme that the best official worker is he who manages to bring as much voluntary aid as possible into his work.

In order to facilitate joint study and cooperative planning, many communities have found valuable the organization of a health



Photograph by Harold M. Lambert

council or a health committee as a supporting voluntary body of representative public-spirited citizens, including representatives of public health, medical, and dental organizations and other groups. The purposes are primarily to promote the coordination of public and private health work and to aid in securing continuity of program; to serve as a forum for discussion of problems, policies, and plans in connection with sickness and health; to develop new standards of service and to improve present standards through joint study of special problems; to secure improvement in existing health facilities and services and the establishment of new or additional health facilities or services wherever they are needed; to prevent duplication of effort; and to give moral support to the existing department of health in cooperation with the medical and dental societies of the community.

THE P.T.A. AND THE HEALTH PROGRAM

These are some of the broad features of a program for the protection and promotion of health. Attention may now be directed to some of the opportunities of parent-teacher associations. Even before the creation of a standing committee on child health in 1909, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers gave consideration to the welfare of the whole child in terms of its health foundations.⁵ By 1926 the original committee, which made an enlightening report on infant mortality, had become a department consisting of four committees: Child Hygiene, Physical Education, Social Hygiene, and Mental Hygiene. Out of this expanding interest grew the Summer Round-Up of the Children, a valuable medium through which instruction in child health could be brought to parents everywhere. Later, after it had already fulfilled a useful function, the purpose of the project was wisely broadened "in order to stimulate parents' interest and activity in behalf of a sustained program of continuous medical and dental supervision of children of all ages, including those apparently healthy." For-

⁵ *Projects and Purposes, a Review of the Origin and Progress of Parent-Teacher Work*. Chicago: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1940.

tunately also, parent-teacher health work, according to clearly defined policies, has become "a joint endeavor carried on in cooperation with the community medical, dental, and nursing professions and educational and health agencies." Reference has been made to the lag in the application by the public of available knowledge and services. "The parent-teacher organization stands in the strategic position of providing a bridge over which knowledge may travel from the field of expert science to the homes where application must be made."

Public health as well as school officials welcome the interest and cooperation of parent-teacher associations, and are usually in a position to assist in the formation of a plan of study and participation and to provide useful source materials and visual aids for a constructive health program adapted to the local situation. In one state, a constructive study was made of school health policies, including references to diphtheria protection, health examinations, and school lunch facilities; in a community an association aided in the conduct of the health examination and provided hostesses for parents who attended; in another, promotion of protective health measures and health education was furthered. In many instances the stimulus of coordinated efforts is needed; in others a more constructive school health program, with emphasis on the provision of medical, dental, and nursing service for health guidance, is desirable,⁶ while in most communities much can be done to emphasize the importance of (a) the sustained program of continuous supervision aforementioned; (b) more serious attention to mental hygiene and nutrition; and (c) community health education.

The task of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers was never greater or its program more urgently needed. This program is defined in the following terms: "one which supports and promotes educational procedure in the field of child health; which

* See *Health Education*, a report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. 2d Revised Edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1941. Pp. 368.

participates in the coordinating of community resources for health; and finally, which recognizes and endeavors to meet those problems of child health which are rooted in the social and economic structure of the family." Not only for its implications as an aid to the preservation of the American way of life but as a help in the long-term planning and action necessary to make that way of life more worth while, every parent and every teacher may find a contribution to make in this constructive enterprise.

CHAPTER X

TO GUIDE THE GROWING PERSONALITY

RALPH H. OJEMANN

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THE education of children is one of the most important functions of any society. If the education of children is neglected or ill performed, the values and hopes, and indeed the very life, of the social group are in danger of being destroyed. Through a long and continuous struggle man has achieved some mastery over his environment by learning how to control the forces of the physical and mental world. He no longer fears the lightning, for he has learned to control it. He no longer lives in dread of the "great black plague," for he has learned to control that too. He has learned that his ability to control depends upon his having the necessary skill, knowledge, and emotional resources. Accordingly, he has developed the school to insure that all children will be guided by especially trained persons to acquire the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are essential to living life at its best.

It is clear that parents have a vital stake in the education of their children. They want that education to be the best possible. They wish to cooperate with the school. How can their cooperation be made most effective? That is a question of vital interest to all parent-teacher associations.

Before we can give a satisfactory answer to this question, we must have before us the outline or at least the highlights of a good education. We must have some idea as to what we desire for our children.

The outlines of a good education have been ably set forth in

one of the reports of the Educational Policies Commission. This Commission found it helpful to think of a good education in a democratic society as providing for development in four major areas.

FOUR FIELDS OF DEVELOPMENT

There is, first of all, the development of the individual child as a person. This has been called the objective of self-realization. Each individual child must learn to use the mother tongue in reading, writing, and speaking. He must learn to use numbers effectively. He must understand the needs of his body and mind so that he is able and willing to apply to his own life the principles of physical hygiene, mental hygiene, helpful recreation, and intelligent use of leisure time. He cannot give responsible direction to his own life unless he learns thoroughly the principles of everyday living. Stated in other words, the objective of self-realization is the development of a person equipped to use the basic knowledges, skills, and attitudes necessary for guiding his own development to increasingly more significant levels. It includes the three R's and the fundamentals of personal care.

That this first objective is a significant one can hardly be questioned. That it takes many years to build a self-directing character is equally clear.

But the individual does not live alone. He lives in a family group, a neighborhood group, and a large social group. Another objective of education, therefore, is to develop effective human relationships. The educated person enjoys rich, sincere, and varied interests with others. He considers the well-being of others, co-operates intelligently, and seeks to develop democratic relationships in the family and in other social groups. Learning to work and play with others, looking at new methods and new processes in the light of their effects on human beings, thinking of others in making plans—all these are involved in effective living. They are important outcomes of the education that intelligent persons desire for their children.

The educated person is also an informed and skillful producer

and an informed and skillful consumer. His being a skillful producer implies that he knows about many occupations, selects the one best fitted to his abilities and personality, and through the pursuit of it contributes his share to the social group. It also implies maintaining and improving efficiency in the occupation. Being a skillful consumer requires extensive knowledge of everyday economics and the desire to achieve an intelligent exchange of goods and services. This third objective, too, requires no extended discussion to make clear its place in our educational plan.

The educated person realizes that it is not possible to achieve the conditions of individual and social growth without effective cooperation with other citizens. He assumes his share of civic responsibility, with other members of the community, state, nation, and world, to guide the development of human welfare. He seeks to make himself aware of the conditions under which others live, studies the effects of these conditions in the light of their effects on human beings, and seeks to change these conditions by methods that will have a wholesome effect on all concerned. He respects differences of opinion and seeks to plan his behavior in the light of the best knowledge available. A worthy objective indeed!

We now have before us four great objectives of education: achieving effective self-realization, building satisfying human relationships, maintaining intelligent economic efficiency, and assuming genuine civic responsibility.

PARENTS MUST NOT FAIL

From this analysis it is clear that education has many aspects. It covers an extensive area. There are many changes that must be made in the child. There is much involved in the guiding of children. What is the parent's part in this most important process?

On first thought it may appear that, since genuine education involves so many goals, there isn't much that parents can do. Education seems a complex process and therefore a job for experts only. As we have already noted, society long ago set aside the school as a special agency for educating children. Special persons, administrators and teachers, are trained to supervise the educative

process. It is easy to assume that the school is the only agency involved and that it is to do the job alone.

Such a view of education has not been uncommon in the past. Schools have attempted to educate children without paying much attention to the home, and, conversely, parents have often paid little attention to the school.

This separation of home and school overlooks three important facts. On the one hand, it is a well-established principle of learning that the experiences a child has, regardless of whether they are obtained in the home, in the school, or elsewhere, affect his development. It makes no difference where the experiences are obtained. For example, if a child hears language poorly spoken at home and in the community he is not likely to make rapid progress in his mastery of the mother tongue. It is not difficult to see, in the light of this principle, that the child's home experiences may counteract those he has at school, or vice versa. A home that denies a child a genuine sense of status and belonging may create in the child an anxiety that will make effective learning difficult. A home that promotes a negative attitude toward school may counteract all the efforts of the school to keep the work interesting. A home in which there is much strife and tension may produce so much anxiety in the child as to make learning difficult. All of us can think of many more illustrations of the ways in which experiences at home may undo the work of the school.

It is also true that the experiences the child has at school affect his behavior at home. If the child comes home worried about his teachers, his companions, or his work, the parent may have to take time out to help him regain his balance.

It is possible to devise home experiences that may counteract the work at school, but it is also possible to develop home experiences that will enhance and strengthen the work at school. This is most important. As we have seen, genuine education involves many goals. There is much to be done. It would help the child and make the process most efficient if the experiences at home worked in the same direction as do those of the school and, also, if the experiences at school worked in the same direction as those at home.

But there is another fact that we must bear in mind in working out the parent's responsibility in the education of children. In a democratic society the power to establish a school rests fundamentally with the people. The kind of school that a community has is dependent upon the kind of school that the people of the community approve. In the ordinary American community people exercise their power over the school by selecting representatives. These representatives are called school directors or school board members. To achieve the best kind of education the community must have the best kind of school board. It is of first importance, therefore, that all parents know the qualifications that characterize a good school board member, and, furthermore, that they know which citizens in the community possess these qualifications. It is clear that if parents do not possess an understanding of the qualifications of a school board member and do not know the citizens in their community who possess these qualifications they cannot make a wise choice.

A third factor affecting our problem is the place of education in the parent's scheme of things. How important do we think education is, in comparison with other values? The school derives its support from the community. It can go only as far as the citizens of the community are willing to go in paying the bills. It is well known also that the amount of taxable wealth per child varies greatly from unit to unit if the taxing unit is small. The amount of taxable wealth varies greatly from township to township and from district to district. To equalize the educational tax burden, students of educational finance have strongly urged the use of increasingly larger taxing units. The establishment of larger units is dependent upon the wishes of the citizens. What kind of an education are we willing to support, and how large should the taxing units be to provide this education most efficiently? This is a question that may well be studied by all parent groups.

TO MAKE THE TASK EFFECTIVE

We now have three very vital ways in which parents are concerned in the education of their children. How can the parent

play his part most effectively? Let us put the foregoing ideas into three major questions and then attempt to answer each.

1. We have seen that the kind of experience a child has at home may help or hinder his development in school. What experiences can the home provide that will be most helpful in furthering the educational development of the child?

2. What are the qualifications of a good school board member, and how can parent-teacher associations assist in selecting citizens who meet these qualifications?

3. How can citizens make an intelligent decision as to how much of the available resources they should spend for education?

If we answer these three questions, we should have some very practical methods by which parents can cooperate with the school in the education of their children. Let us take the second question first.

CHOOSING A SCHOOL BOARD

What are the qualifications of school board members? A study of the problem suggests the following points:

1. Every school board member must know what constitutes the desired goals, or objectives, of education. He must be familiar with the best present-day thought with respect to these goals.

2. Not only must he know the composition of a good education, but he must be genuinely interested in achieving the best possible education for the children in the community.

3. He must be willing to take time to study carefully the qualifications of a capable superintendent and to appraise objectively and impartially the candidates for that position.

4. He must be willing to take time to study objectively the recommendations of the chief executive, that is, the suggestions that relate to the needs and general policies of the school. He must be willing to examine new proposals in the light of their demonstrated worth in the development of children.

5. He must possess the general characteristics that are required of all citizens, namely, ability to cooperate intelligently, sincerity, a sense of responsibility, open-mindedness, and a sense of justice.

One investigator, a few years ago, summarized the qualities of a school board member in the form of a score card, which it may be helpful to reproduce here:

SCALE FOR RATING THE EFFICIENCY
OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

Qualities	Superior	Good	Average	Fair	Inferior
1. Belief in the public school					
2. Willingness to learn					
3. Interest in the community					
4. Ability to cooperate					
5. Ability to withstand criticism					
6. Ability to plan for the future					
7. Loyalty to associates					
8. Sense of justice					
9. Knowledge of education					
10. Financial ability					
11. Honesty and sincerity					
12. Willingness to progress					
13. Sense of responsibility					
14. Intelligence					
15. Persistence					
16. Ability to get things done					
17. Open-mindedness					
18. Punctuality					
19. Courtesy					
20. Good nature					
Totals					
Final Score					

SOURCE: Almack, John C. *The School Board Member* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1927), p. 24.

The foregoing lists of qualifications may be made the subject of a discussion in a parent-teacher association meeting. They may also be reprinted in local newspapers before each school board election.

How can parents determine which citizens in the community best fulfill these qualifications? There are two general methods. On the one hand, parent-teacher associations, working singly or in conjunction with other civic groups, can encourage all candidates for public office, including school board members, to pre-

pare a public statement indicating the aims they will pursue if they are elected to office. This statement can be published in the local newspapers, so as to be readily available to all the citizens of the community. In some communities this has become an established practice prior to each important election.

Individual citizens may number among their acquaintances persons who are especially qualified as school board members. Such citizens may be actively urged to become candidates in the interest of building the best possible school for the community.

We may extend these recommendations somewhat beyond the school board. Some of the legislation pertaining to schools is enacted not by the local school boards but by the state legislature. In the last analysis, education in any community is primarily a function of the state. It is helpful, therefore, to extend the aforementioned suggestions to candidates for the state legislature, especially with respect to their interest in schools and their conception of an adequate state system of public education.

Taking an intelligent part in the election of members for the school board and for the legislature is one of the important methods by which parents can assure continually improved education for their children. It is one of the responsibilities of citizens in a democracy!

NEEDED: UNDERSTANDING AND EXPERIENCE

The next question relates to the kind of home experiences that will be most helpful in achieving, jointly with the school, the best education of children. The parent cooperates effectively by supplying the best possible home background. What are the essentials that the home can provide? There are many:

1. Every child needs adequate food, plenty of restful sleep, and genuinely recreational experiences if he is to keep fit for doing a good job of learning. By providing these essentials the home is cooperating in a very real way with the school.

2. It is helpful if every child can be relatively free from unnecessary fears, anxieties, and conflicts. A home environment in which the child feels he has a place and in which there are parents

with whom he feels free to discuss his most intimate problems is necessary if the child is to achieve the educational goals we have outlined.

3. The parent needs an understanding of the methods the school uses and the cooperation the school desires in such activities as field trips, excursions, and additional out-of-school experiences. This understanding can be provided through a meeting of principals, teachers, and parents early in each school year.

4. Teachers need to know the families of their pupils. It is not possible for a teacher to understand the child's behavior in school or to guide his learning effectively if she does not know the kind of home environment from which the child comes. Parents can cooperate in a most effective way by welcoming teachers to their homes, answering the school's questions with respect to home conditions, and encouraging other parents to do the same. The school, in turn, may provide each teacher with some time each week during which she is relieved of teaching in order to make home visits. Such a plan as that outlined by Superintendent Bonar of Manitowoc, Wisconsin, in the January 1941 *Journal of the National Education Association* may well be studied carefully by parent-teacher associations and school boards.

5. Parents must be acquainted with the school. They cannot understand the child's behavior at home or guide it effectively unless they know his experiences at school. Mrs. Jones had an experience that thousands of mothers have had. Her son, John, did not want to go to school in the morning. He dressed slowly, dawdled over his breakfast, and nearly had to be pushed out of the door before he would start for school. When Mrs. Jones was about to give up in despair, someone suggested that she visit the school. This she did. She soon realized that John was being teased about the kind of clothes he wore. He was dressed much better than the other boys, and because his mother had emphasized it frequently he was always afraid of getting his clothes dirty. The other children called him a "sissy." One visit was enough to indicate to Mrs. Jones what should be done.

6. The attitude of the child is in part influenced by the atti-

tude of the parent and in part by the attitude of the teacher. Both home and school must be careful to help the child build a constructive attitude toward his work. If John complains that his teacher is unfair to him or that his work at school is too hard, the parent should find out more about the situation before blaming John, the teacher, or both. Always taking the child's part will not help the child. Paying no attention to the difficulty may lead to more trouble later. On the other hand, a visit to the school, a talk with the teacher, and careful observation of John at work will help both parents and teachers to locate the trouble. At the lower age levels frequent visits by the parent to the school are in order. At the later age levels, when children in general do not like parental visits, parents can arrange conferences with the teachers, meet with them during open house sessions, or consult with them at parent-teacher meetings.

7. There are many important connecting links between the home and the school, such as visiting teachers, school psychologists, child guidance clinics, and various services that assist in home-school cooperation. All parent-teacher associations can study with profit the work of the child guidance agencies, encouraging the superintendent to add some of these important links.

8. If the school is to develop, it must from time to time re-examine its practices, revise old ones, or institute new ones. Parent-teacher associations can study proposals for changing old practices or adopting new ones. Above all, everyone connected with school and home can take an open-minded attitude toward any practice, examining it in the light of its actual results. One person may think that a child psychologist is unnecessary or that putting on an assembly program is a fad and that neither will contribute to the child's development. Who is to decide whether the new practices are to be adopted? Such problems arise in any cooperative venture. The only satisfactory method of solving them is to discuss the problem thoroughly and whenever possible to make the decision in terms of the actual effect upon the child. If it can be shown that putting on an assembly program will help the child to develop poise before a group or will contribute to his

development in some other way, then putting on an assembly program is not a fad; it is something that helps the child to develop.

The mere opinion of the tax-paying parent is not enough. The question must be settled by considering all sides. Similarly, the mere opinion of teachers or of the principal is not enough. There have been cases in which the suggestions of parents were better than the suggestions of the school. There have also been cases in which the reverse was true. We cannot assume that one or the other will always be right or always be wrong. A school cannot improve itself if it is not willing to examine its methods thoroughly in the light of the actual results, and it cannot do this if it does not have the full cooperation of parents in testing out and objectively appraising new practices.

BALANCE AND PROPORTION

The third general area of concern in the education of children relates to the maintenance of a balanced sense of values. Are we putting forth an effort that is proportional to the worth of an education? How can parents keep a balanced sense of values, with education in its proper place? How can they find out whether they are spending enough for education?

This is a very difficult problem. Sometimes communities compare themselves with other communities to see if they are spending as much per pupil. This practice must be carefully examined. Comparisons of one community with another cannot logically be made unless the conditions in the several communities are much alike. For example, it costs more to transport pupils in a sparsely populated community than in one thickly populated. Schools in the northern states spend more for heating than do schools in the southern states. Comparing one community with another is not a very safe procedure.

A better means of finding out whether we are spending enough for our schools may be a close study of the development of children as they pass through the school and after they leave the school. When children leave the preschool groups and the kindergarten to enter the first grade, do they have a satisfactory background

for effective work in the first grade? A similar question is in order when they leave the elementary school and enter the high school. Are they as healthy, happy, and capable as we like to see them? Do they get the kind of foundation at each level that is needed for the succeeding level? Does the high school really challenge them to do their best? And, when they get out of school, are they equipped mentally, emotionally, and socially to take a job, found a family, and perform intelligently the duties of citizenship? If they are not so equipped, what is wrong? Are teachers' salaries high enough to attract capable and well-trained teachers? Are there good reference libraries, good laboratories, and ample facilities for all the training that is needed? Would it help the boys and girls if additional services were added? Could the job of developing children be made more effective?

What struggles are our children facing, especially after they get out of school? How do they fare in such struggles? Would it help to restore our sense of values and keep us alive to the needs of our children if we asked young people, both before they leave school and after they have been out two or three years, to tell us how well prepared they feel? Would it help us to build a balanced sense of values if we asked young adults how adequate their preparation has been and what improvements should be made in it for the benefit of their successors in the school?

A PROBLEM FOR THE P.T.A.

Perhaps parent-teacher associations should spend some time studying the problems of their children both in and out of school, to determine how successfully these problems are met. Some meetings of the parent-teacher association during each school year may be devoted to discussions with young people who have graduated, to see how they are faring. We can hardly go wrong in answering the question of adequate expenditure for education if we examine the successes and failures of our children in meeting daily problems and if we interpret our observations in the light of the development they should have received.

In this discussion of the education of children we have seen

that there is much that parents not only can but must do if the education of children is to be most effective. Upon the parents rests the responsibility of choosing capable school board members who will take an intelligent and genuine interest in the school. This means that parent-teacher associations must study the qualifications of school board members. Upon the parents rests the responsibility for providing home conditions that will help, not hinder, the child's learning. Good food; freedom from unnecessary fears, anxieties, and conflicts; a sense of security that comes from having some one to consult about intimate problems; parents and teachers who understand each other and who are willing to evaluate educational procedures objectively—these are some of the necessary conditions for learning that no child should ever be denied. And, finally, the community cannot build the most effective school system if it does not have parents who are sensitive to the accomplishments and shortcomings of their schools as revealed by the successes and failures of children in their attempts to master the problems of everyday living and to build rich and useful lives. The responsibilities of parent-teacher associations in building this sensitivity are indeed great; but what finer accomplishment can we hope for than to have parents and citizens who will not let young lives fail to realize their highest hopes?

CHAPTER XI

THE UNENDING QUEST FOR KNOWLEDGE

MALCOLM S. MACLEAN

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NOT long ago there was a notion, both serious and widespread, that grown-ups could not study and learn. People said, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." They thought that when school or college was finished our brains were fixed for life; the pattern of our thought was set, and thereafter we could take in few, if any, new ideas. They thought we died like a lightning-blasted tree—from the top down.

But people were wrong. Scientists and educators got to work. They proved to the hilt that adults can learn anything they really want or need to know within whatever limits of intelligence and special abilities they possess. Since this comforting fact was discovered we have had an enormous growth of adult education. We have had also many practical proofs of our power to learn. The parent-teacher association is one of the most important of these proofs. Any member who compares what she once knew about schools and teachers and children, boards of education, and marks and courses with what she has learned since joining the association needs no further evidence.

MUST ADULTS LEARN?

If you and I agree, then, that we *can* be educated at our age, we must raise the question whether we *must* go on learning. Many of us, particularly at our tired times, wonder why we can't just settle down and live pretty good lives with what we knew when we

quit formal school. Is there no point at which we can be like "contented cows," chewing the same old mental cud and moving from sun to shade when it's hot and back from shade to sun when the weather cools? Why must we spend energy on the restless and uncomfortable job of thinking and studying? Can't we get for our children in our schools and in our homes good, solid courses, as we get milk and bread and butter and beef for our tables, and not have to bother any more thereafter? Can't we elect a good school board, which appoints a good principal, who appoints good teachers, and let them take care of the whole business of bringing up our children?

The answer to all these questions is that unless you and I study in some way all the time, we get "dumber" day by day. There is no point, therefore, at which we can stop learning and rest. We either slip back and grow stupid, or we study and keep at least partly caught up and moving ahead. The reason for this is that the whole world about us is boiling with war and invention and New Deals and Nazism and priorities. The world has shrunk so that just the other day a bomber ferry pilot flew from this country to England in eight hours, and another bombed Berlin in an R.A.F. plane at eleven o'clock one night and had dinner in New York City at the same time the next night. This means, of course, that England and Berlin and Japan and Africa are in our neighborhood, and whenever we get new neighbors they change our neighborhood and the way we live and the way we run our schools and the way we bring up our children.

For these reasons our problems change from day to day. We get more of them year by year. They are more complex. They come at us harder. The only way we can keep ourselves ready to tackle these new, swift problems is by studying and learning how to meet them.

The responsibility for keeping ourselves educated lies primarily with you and me. We have to see to it that our school and our community and our family and our P.T.A. have, in the community and ready for our use, all of the various agencies for keeping us up to date. None of us can do much of this alone, but when we

join together, as in the P.T.A., and pool our powers, our thinking, our money, and our influence, we can really get what we need in adult education.

HOW IT CAN BE DONE

There are many agencies, mediums, methods, and technics for our learning. Personally, I learn a great deal from the radio; the news broadcasts, the People's Platform, the University of Chicago Round Table, and the Town Hall of the Air, not to mention the many lectures and other panel discussions by specialists in education and science, religion, child welfare, and the like. One excellent thing for any P.T.A. to do is to have a radio program committee to keep its members informed as to the dates, hours, and local stations listed for these good programs. If the local P.T.A. unit does a good job, of course, it will find that more and more of its members are learning much of the latest and best that they need to know about schools, about government, about jobs, and about children. And, at the same time, they will be wasting less and less of their time and energy on "soap opera," superheated romance, and not very funny amusement programs.

The movies likewise are a source of adult education. Those of you who have seen Dr. Alice Keliher, of New York University, at work with elementary and high school youngsters, with teachers, and with parent groups know what I mean. She and others have taken full-length Hollywood feature films, cut them, and reorganized them into little, powerful fifteen minute plays about us and our children and our schools and our problems. Because these excerpts are dramatic and powerful and tell a clear story, they show us just how other real people have solved puzzles that we ourselves face. The longer forms of these movies to which we go for entertainment are none the less, when they are good, an excellent way of adult education.

Current magazines are a third good means of keeping abreast. More members of the parent-teacher association ought to be reading their national magazine on child welfare, the *National Parent-Teacher*, and other parent education and child study and child

welfare publications. Although, as a nation, it is probable that we read more than any other people in any other time, we still do not read enough—or enough of the right sort of material. Studies that my associates made at the University of Minnesota and that Dr. Robert Foster and others have made at Detroit show clearly that mothers and fathers and youngsters read, on the whole, four or five times as much trash as solid material. The “funnies,” the sports pages, the stories of murders and accidents, the style columns on hats and dresses and accessories—all are good for us in small quantities, but too much time spent on them to the neglect of other things in these times is just like time wasted by an English air raid warden in Bristol who should spend half an hour powdering her nose and putting on her lipstick during a bombing raid. I can learn more in a two-hour perusal of the *Reader's Digest*, I am sure, than I used to learn in a week of school classes about things that I must know if I am going to face the problems of this democracy in these times with courage and confidence.

One of the best study group techniques I have seen was employed by a unit that had an active magazine committee. The members of this committee divided the magazine field among themselves. Each member took two magazines and read them both from cover to cover, picking out the most pertinent, illuminating, and important articles. Each then wrote a three- or four-sentence description summarizing each article and stating why it was important. These summaries were turned in to the committee chairman, who mimeographed the entire list and so distributed to the members at each meeting a list of thirty or forty articles of vital importance for that time, that community, that school, and those parents and teachers.

I shall only suggest that what I have said of magazines is true also of books, especially of the grand little books like those in the “People's Library,” published by Macmillan—not to mention the classics and some important things recently done in twenty-five-cent editions and sold in most drugstores and newsstands. Although the old advertisements about getting cultured by reading a so-many-foot bookshelf for fifteen minutes a day were typical

blurbs, the principle was nevertheless sound. We ought to stretch it to an hour or more a day. And we ought not to read classics alone or funnies and crime and sports and women's pages exclusively—not, at least, if we are going to keep caught up with our world.

MEANS FORMALLY PROVIDED

Thus far I have not even mentioned the formal agencies for adult education. Nearly every community above 10,000 has some kind of a lecture series that brings to the church or school or auditorium hall platform distinguished men and women lecturers in every field of human problems. These are, for the most part, persons of vital experience, training, and prestige, whose lectures, if we listen to them instead of staying at home to play bridge or chat idly with our neighbors, can broaden our point of view and strengthen our powers for living in a democracy. Too often, however, local communities and parent-teacher groups neglect, more than they should, not only the visiting "teachers" of adult education but also the home talent. In nearly every small community there are two or three teachers, a lawyer or two, a doctor, a social worker, a minister, an engineer, and an artist who either professionally or as amateurs keep not only up to date but ahead of the parade on something of real interest and value to all of us. Larger communities have many more such persons available. It seems to me it is the business of the P.T.A. as a group to be very active in this matter. It should support the efforts of forums, lyceums, and other organizations to get good outside talent. It should help to uncover local talent. It should ask for lectures by well-known persons on things they and the community need to know about.

In any community, however, that is lacking in such resources, there are others that are too little used. Nearly every state in the Union has a state university; nearly every state university has an extension division. This extension division is empowered to draw on all or most of the university staff to serve the farthest and smallest community within the state borders. Some P.T.A.'s make great use of the university extension service, particularly for child study

groups and for examination of school problems. Others use them far less than they ought, and some are not even aware that extension divisions exist. I expect that in the years to come more and more parent-teacher associations will awaken to the very great resources in their state universities, in both personnel and materials, for adult education on almost any subject.

WHO PAYS THE COSTS?

There is great confusion of thinking among many Americans in this developmental period of adult education in all its aspects. One question concerns the manner in which it shall be paid for. There are those who, looking upon the Government as a beneficent parent or a "Santa Claus," assume that it is the Government's job to pay the whole cost of adult education. This is far from true. We are the Government, you and I, and as such we pay for our own services, whether in adult education, employment security, fire protection, or any other field of public service. All that the Government can do or should do is to make sure, I think, of two things as criteria of what it pays for: first, that the thing it pays for is a public service and of benefit to the whole United States or to whole large portions of it; and second (and this is a corollary of the first) that what it pays for is something that cannot or should not be paid for by private, individual, or group funds.

Government, whether local or state or national, is like the P.T.A. local, state, or national organization; it is simply a means of pooling our resources of money and material and distributing these more effectively than they could possibly be gathered and used by individuals. In adult education it is obviously the Government's job to see that its citizenry is trained to the highest degree in performing community and government service, since citizens, actually are the Government. Democracy is unique in that it demands this kind of service of all of us. In this sense every one of us is a politician. Hence, it is our duty in the P.T.A. to see that we get our share of state and Federal resources for adult education and that we spend these resources of money, materials, and personnel only for things that are really effective and really needed.

In the present war emergency the Government pours tremendous amounts of money into vocational training and vocational re-education of men and women, mostly young but some older, to man the machines to build the arms for the world-wide defense effort of democracy. When this war is over the Government will have continued responsibility to see that men and women are retrained for civilian and nondefense national reconstruction jobs. As citizens, we in the P.T.A. must see to it that the Government keeps on spending money for vocational adult education, so that we may have no second terrible slump, with a return of depression and nation-wide unemployment.

THE SHIFTING VOCATIONAL SCENE

In more or less normal times, however, it is the individual's job and the group's job to provide vocational training for young adults, and it is the particular job of the P.T.A. to see to it that school boards, superintendents, principals, teachers, and parents build the right kind of public and private schools, the right kind of training programs in those schools, and the right kind of attitudes all around to teach our boys and girls and young men and women to make a living in America as it develops and changes from year to year. We cannot afford to be as ignorant and lazy as we have been in the past, when we simply let the schools drift along, giving old-fashioned and outmoded training for a "job world" that no longer existed. Thousands of new jobs have been created in the past thirty years, and yet, by and large, the country over, in high school and college the courses have remained pretty much the same; particularly is this true of the high school. The *New York Regents Inquiry* showed with startling clarity that pupils were leaving the high schools of New York City not knowing how to choose, to apply for, to get, to hold, and to grow in jobs. They were found also to be on the whole untrained as good citizens, good mothers and fathers, or good homemakers, and to have little—very little—sense of community responsibility. This is a tragically inadequate result to be obtained by a nation that spends more

on education and has more boys and girls and men and women in school than any other nation in the history of the world.

In this connection, one of the things that we in the P.T.A. must educate ourselves upon is what the world has to offer in the way of jobs and what these jobs are really like. Until the United States started on its defense program, Americans all were bitten by a deadly social and psychological disease which I like to call the Horatio Alger bigger-and-better-big-shot disease. Because parents had ambitions for their youngsters; because teachers praised only the great men and women of history and ignored the common men and women; because radio and newspapers and magazines played up the big shot, more than 90 per cent of American youngsters want, through school and college, to become executives and managers and professional persons, whereas it is perfectly clear that society can use only 6 per cent of its population in these jobs and that the remaining 94 per cent must be farmers and clerks and skilled mechanics and sales and service people. The defense program has shown us up for a bunch of silly dreamers; when the crisis hit us, we found ourselves desperately short—and we still are short—of people to do the jobs that need to be done at the present time.

The *Encyclopedia of Occupations* shows that at present more than 25,000 different jobs are held by American men and women. Even at first glance it is obviously fantastic to expect the high schools and colleges to train youth for so many different jobs. All the schools of America together could not develop 25,000 different patterns of courses even if parents or society could send a boy from Maine to a California school to get a special course. This looks, therefore, at first glance, like a problem that can't be solved. But one of the solutions—not a simple one—is to find out what are the simple, fundamental skills and knowledges and kinds of behavior and ways of feeling and thinking that make a man efficient on one job and not on another. When we approach the 25,000 jobs from this point of view, we see immediately that they cluster into "families" of occupations, if we can finally find out what these families are like and what they demand, we can train our boys and girls

for the family of jobs to which they, with their special patterns of abilities and interests and attitudes, belong. Need I say that present schools, for the most part, do not have the foggiest notion of this way of educating youngsters? And isn't it clear, too, that courses in civics and mathematics and history and English as taught in the past do not, as the *Regents Inquiry* and other studies show, really prepare young people at all well for the jobs they have to do. You can see from this that parent-teacher associations have a tremendous task ahead to keep abreast of what society needs in the way of trained workers and to keep the schools constantly alert and changing to meet the world's demands.

MAINTAINING THE PACE

The ideal adult education set-up of the future, so far as vocational training is concerned, will do this very thing. Moreover, it will provide, as medicine and engineering now do, for special refresher courses to keep pace with changes. We learn so much so fast that a parent who fails to refresh himself all the time and who might have been a good parent last year is a bad parent this year if she or he "gets behind." Just as a doctor who knew the best way to handle pneumonia two years ago is guilty of criminal negligence if he doesn't know how to treat pneumonia patients this year with the various sulfa drugs, so a teacher who fails to keep up with the growing knowledge about children and their living and education is negligent also.

In seeing to it that parents and teachers keep abreast of recent changes, the P.T.A. has a big responsibility for adult education. So far it has done an excellent job in developing, by constant emphasis, parent education and education for home and family life. But, even with all the efforts in this field, there are still some millions of parents who are bringing up their children badly because of ignorance. Divorces and family crack-ups are still on the increase. There is no solution to this problem except to redouble our efforts toward adult education and to widen our range of alertness, interest, and training of ourselves and others in our community.

THE SCOPE OF PARENT-TEACHER EFFORT

What, then, are the areas of adult education with which parents and teachers should concern themselves in this broad range?

I would put first the oldest and best of all the educational principles, stated more than a thousand years ago by a Greek educator. He said, in effect, that the thing we are most interested in, all of us, and should be throughout our lives, the thing that we should continually learn most about until we are very old and ready to die, is ourselves. In modern times this old principle of "Know thyself" is called understanding and developing our personalities. So true is the principle that Dale Carnegie's book on *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, the title of which means "How can I improve my personality?" has sold over a million copies. As parents and as teachers, we are deeply concerned with knowing ourselves, developing our own personalities, and are even more concerned with developing our children's personalities. As adult parents and teachers we need, therefore, to educate ourselves all the time by all possible methods. We need constantly to study and improve our learning and the practices of our schools in developing children's personalities.

If we did this, our parent-teacher associations would have a powerful effect on reorganizing school practice, teaching, and curriculum. We should, for example, consider art and music and dramatics and playgrounds and student government as vital parts of school training instead of thinking of these things, as we have sometimes been guilty of doing, as fads and frills of little or no consequence in the lives of our children. We now know by many careful, scientific studies that these activities are far more effective in character building than are the classes and subjects that we have been wont to look upon as the only concern of the teacher, the school, and the parent in relation to the school. I have seen hordes of children twisted and distorted in their personalities and characters by classroom procedures, and I have seen many children change into wonderful characters under the influence of art, music, dramatics, playground activities, and student government.

The second great area of concern in adult education for the parent-teacher association, as I see it, is the job area—vocational training, on which I have already commented. It is the duty of parents and teachers to study the vocational needs of American society, to study the patterns of the work of the world, to study the abilities and the interests and the attitudes of youngsters, to study the courses and teaching methods of each little local school and teacher, and to try to bring all of these together over the years into a unified program that will really make sense and really get youngsters ready to take their part in the work of the world. We must learn not to think any longer in terms of executive and professional positions as against menial jobs. We must learn not to think any longer in terms of white-collar jobs and dirty-shirt jobs. We must learn instead to think in terms of the work that society needs; we must give every job its due, considering it fundamentally dignified and worthy if it satisfies the person who holds it and is useful to society.

The third great area of adult education is one that has been most deeply the concern of the parent-teacher association. This is the area of parent education and education for home and family life. Everybody knows that the family lies at the core of human society. Everybody knows that if we have good families we have a good society and that if we have poor families we have a poor society. Everybody knows that this is so because every one of us spends more of his life with his family than he spends by himself or as a worker or as a community servant. Everybody knows that a good family can produce more happiness and a poor family more misery than can any other human agency.

Nevertheless, we see all about us many signs that the American family is cracking up and cracking up badly. The divorce rate is climbing. Every time I look at a group of happy youngsters in the school building I say to myself, "If this thing keeps up, one in five or six of those youngsters in ten years is going to wind up in the divorce court, and a lot more will be on the verge." The reason for this difficulty is that our families are being subjected to terrific stresses and strains. The radio has brought the outside world crash-

ing into our living rooms; prize fights fought at Madison Square Garden, huge battles on the Libyan Desert or around Moscow, and bombing raids over Berlin and London take place in hitherto peaceful parlors. Movies and the family car, football games and golf, committee and group meetings tear families away from the fireside in a dozen different directions every week. While parent-teacher associations have done a valiant job on this problem, a still greater task remains to be done, and we cannot for a moment cease preparing ourselves, through adult education, to understand these forces that destroy the family and the opposite forces which alone can establish the American family in a true and satisfying home life.

The fourth great area of adult education with which the parent-teacher association must continually concern itself is community service. We have talked much about training our children to be good citizens and about preserving and building a better democracy, but so far we have not learned how really to do the job. The reason we must do so is quite simple. You and I and each of our children can have fine personalities. We can have lovely families. We can have good jobs. But all three of these assets can go to pieces and bring bitterness and defeat unless our community, our state, and our nation is growing and prospering. Look at what happens to personalities and families and jobs in any war zone, in Poland or Belgium or France. Look at what happens in a boom town that becomes a ghost town.

Now, there are only two ways by which we can get healthy communities. One is to turn the job over to a benevolent and wise dictator and say to him, "You do it"; let him boss the job and tell us what to do. That has been tried many times in history, and, when the dictator was really wise and really benevolent, human beings had a fairly satisfactory society. The second way is by everybody's doing it; by everybody's being a public servant, a good citizen, a planner and a doer for the good of his community. To be able to be good citizens, we have to be trained throughout childhood, adolescence, and youth, and we have to be retrained as adults. We can't train good citizens in either families or schools if those

families or schools are little petty dictatorships instead of little democracies. We can't teach youngsters to be responsible members of the community unless they are given all the responsibility they can bear in their families and in their schools throughout their childhood and adolescence. In consequence, the parent-teacher association has the very great responsibility of seeing to it that by adult self-education and cooperative effort we learn to study ourselves, our families, and our schools and to change them every day and every year toward a more genuine democracy.

CHAPTER XII

FOR WHOM THE TRAIL IS STEEP

JOHN E. ANDERSON

John E. Anderson is one of the nation's authorities on child welfare. He is director of the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota, and author of extensive studies on children's growth. He participated in the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, 1939-1940. Dr. Anderson serves the National Congress of Parents and Teachers as Chairman of the Committee on the Exceptional Child.

IN HIS extensive study of American cities, Professor E. L. Thorndike found that, in those communities in which one type of service for children or adults was of a high order, other types of service for children or adults were likely also to be at a high level. As the community develops one desirable service for its citizens, advance is likely also to be made along other lines. Thus, good schools, good clinical facilities, good social programs, and good special services tend to develop together. When we think of the American way of life, we think of a pattern of community functions, each of which contributes in some fashion to the well-being of all who reside within the community. Generally speaking, even though a detailed examination may show some services more advanced than others, good community living moves ahead simultaneously on many fronts and in many different ways.

One of the best tests of the quality of community services is the adequacy of the available facilities for the unfortunate, particularly for children who, because of handicaps or deficiencies, need special treatment. The nature and extent of these services measures the manner in which the community envisages its relation to its members. Long ago a negative relation was discovered among the states in the Union between the number of persons cared for in jails and penal institutions and the number cared for in remedial and protective institutions; that is, states with large popula-

tions had few and poor institutions for the care of the deficient and the abnormal, while those with proportionately small prison populations had many and good institutions. Thus it becomes clear that the state can spend its money in either of two ways: it can support penal institutions, or it can support clinical and remedial institutions. In either case it spends money. This suggests that the community pays for what it gets and gets what it pays for and that, within the limits of its budget, it *chooses*—whether wisely or unwisely. On the same level of income a larger portion of the money available in the good community goes for schools, playgrounds, parks, libraries, and other cultural facilities, while in the poor community a larger proportion goes for unnecessary officials, unwarranted fees, graft, and corruption.

Moreover, the development of services within one area may have a direct relationship to the effectiveness with which the community meets its problems in another area. Thus, by a strengthened family life educational facilities are often improved; by a good recreational program delinquency is reduced; and by adaptation of school instruction to the needs of the normal child the instruction of the deviate child is improved.

If we ask the question "What services should exist in the community for handicapped and problem children?" we are also asking: "What services should exist for the well-being of all children?" There is a double answer. One portion of it stresses the preventive measures that seek to develop such an informed public opinion and such a level of community practice that handicapping deficiencies will be reduced to a minimum by prevention at the source. The second answer stresses a remedial or clinical program that will undertake to find, diagnose, and treat the children who deviate from the normal. In actual practice, preventive and remedial programs often cannot be sharply separated, since the workers in the remedial services usually become interested in preventive programs and take the lead in their development. Thus, the establishment of remedial and clinical services for handicapped children usually steps up the general level of preventive work throughout the community.

PREVENTIVE PROGRAM

Although this chapter is not primarily concerned with preventive programs, we must not lose sight of their importance and the direct contribution they make. For example, a good community program of immunization, vaccination, and sanitation will eliminate many of the contagious diseases that often result in permanent handicaps. Similarly, a good program for the control and medical care of diseases reduces the number of handicapped children.

Of particular importance in a preventive program are periodic physical and health examinations of children. The Summer Round-Up of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has pioneered in this direction, arranging for medical and dental examinations at the child's entrance to school and urging parents to have them examined periodically thereafter. The function of these examinations is twofold. first, to catch deficiencies and inadequacies in a minor or beginning stage and thus make possible treatment that will prevent the development of major handicaps; and second, to locate children with marked deficiencies and handicaps so that appropriate clinical services may be provided.

Certain additional aspects of a good preventive program need stress. A well-organized recreational program on a community-wide basis may prevent or eliminate many behavior problems and much delinquency among children. A good safety program will reduce the number of accidents and so save many children from crippling. A system of parks and playgrounds that takes children off the streets will also reduce the accident toll. Even the school system may be looked upon as a preventive device. If it has a well-adapted curriculum, does a good job of teaching, and has a devoted staff with insight into the needs of children, it not only reduces personal inadequacies but prevents their development.

CLINICAL PROGRAM FOR ALL HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

A good program for handicapped children involves the home, the school, and the community. The essential program for any handicapped child, irrespective of type, includes (1) thorough

physical and mental examinations to determine the extent and nature of his difference from normal children; (2) remedial medical treatment to reduce his handicap to a minimum; (3) education graded to his level in order to develop his abilities to the maximum and prepare him for active participation in life; (4) training in vocations and hobbies through which he can secure some measure of personal satisfaction and social esteem; and (5) provision of social contacts at an appropriate level with both normal children and other handicapped children.

However, before discussing the community responsibility for the services involved in this program it may be well to describe briefly the main types of handicapped children. This will give an idea of the complexity and range of the problems and services that are involved.

TYPES OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

The Crippled Child.—A child may become crippled through any of a wide variety of causes. Whatever the cause, early diagnosis and prompt medical treatment are necessary, followed by a remedial and educational program that will find a place for the child in the community and social life. Special hospitals, schools, and workshops are involved.

The Child with Visual Defects.—Visual defects may range from total blindness to a simple need for glasses. For the totally blind, residential schools and special care are often necessary; for children with partial vision but with defects that cannot be completely corrected by glasses, sight-saving classes and remedial treatment are indicated.

The Deafened Child.—In earlier days thousands of children went through life with undetected hearing deficiencies. Now surveys with the audiometer have located many deafened children and made special treatment and education possible. The very deaf need special schools and special care.

The Subnormal Child.—An occasional child is unable to carry school work at a normal rate. Often he drops back two or three grades. The farther he goes, the greater is his inability to deal with

scholastic work of the verbal type. If a child is so subnormal that constant supervision is necessary, it may be necessary to send him to a state institution for the feeble-minded. In large school systems, opportunity classes or special classes, in which the emphasis is placed upon manual and motor skills and in which there are skilled teachers who understand the child's condition, are provided.

The Gifted Child.—At the opposite end of the scale is the child whose capacity to absorb school material is so great that he advances very rapidly through the school system and is out of touch socially with children of his own chronological age. Usually, however, if good facilities are available, he makes better adjustments than the average child. For bright children, either special classes or an enriched curriculum may be provided.

The Child with a Speech Defect.—A child may fail to adapt to the school routine because of a speech defect, which, though readily recognized, presents serious problems of instruction and guidance. Here, again, special teachers offer the best solution.

The Problem Child.—In most communities there are a number of problem children who are not markedly deficient or handicapped in any of the respects so far described. Because of emotional disturbances, erratic personality manifestations, extreme tendencies to withdrawal, failure to react to ordinary disciplinary procedures, and continual trouble-making in their relations with associates and school officials, these children present serious problems. The factors that produce such behavior are many and varied. The services of experts who can study the relationship of the individual child to his environment and guide him toward better adjustment are needed. This is often done by child guidance clinics, which include psychiatric, psychological, and social services. Such clinics both diagnose the condition and set up a plan of treatment. In addition, there are children who actually commit petty delinquencies or crimes and finally come into trouble with the law. For these children the services of guidance clinics, juvenile courts, and appropriate institutions for detention and rehabilitation are indicated.

The Dependent and Neglected Child.—In many communities there are dependent and neglected children of various classes and descriptions, ranging from illegitimate children to children who have been abandoned, neglected, or seriously mistreated by their parents. With adequate social services available, these children can be given care and protection. In advanced communities there are laws that recognize the rights of such children and place the responsibility of their care upon appropriate officials and agencies.

LOCATION AND DIAGNOSIS OF HANDICAPS

But, since the main approach of the community to handicapped children is through special services of various types, the first step is the location of children with deficiencies. This should be followed by an adequate diagnosis of the nature and extent of the disabilities, in order that the special services may be developed or utilized.

If periodic health examinations were given to all children, the location of disabilities and handicaps would be simple. But such examinations are not given in most communities, and handicaps must be located through direct reports by physicians, teachers, or parents or through surveys conducted by the school, social agencies, parent-teacher associations, or other local groups. This is not always adequate; in many communities there are handicapped children whose parents, because of fear, ignorance, or misplaced affection, have not brought them to the attention of those in a position to give them real assistance.

Well-enforced compulsory education laws contribute to the location of handicapped children. In sections of the country where school attendance is not enforced, many handicapped children reach adulthood illiterate and without even the simplest skills.

In the larger communities with good clinical facilities, diagnosis of the disabilities is readily made in resident clinics. Smaller communities are dependent upon traveling clinics unless they send the child to the larger community. Usually the public health nurse or the county nurse is informed of facilities available for diagnosis and treatment.

RESIDENTIAL CARE FOR EXTREME CASES

In every community some children are so handicapped that it is necessary to provide special institutions for them. The responsibility of the state for providing such institutions has long been recognized. Institutions or residential schools for the feeble-minded, the deafened, the blind, and the epileptic; state hospitals for the crippled; and training schools for delinquent and problem children—these are found in almost every state. From state to state there is great variation in the size, equipment, and training programs of these institutions and also in the extent to which their facilities are made available to the handicapped children within the state. Recently there have been some departures from the traditional policy of placing children in residential schools. These experiments, in which children are boarded out, are causing some revision of the concepts involved. Nevertheless, there will always be a substantial number of children with serious handicaps for whom residential care must be provided. Whatever the state program, it is important that the local community be aware of the facilities available within the state. This is the only way in which the community can use them effectively in the case of children it is not equipped to handle.

SPECIAL TREATMENT AND EDUCATION WITHIN THE COMMUNITY

Many children remain, however, in the community because their handicaps are not serious enough to justify permanent segregation and care. For these children there will be wide variation in the facilities available. In a town of ten thousand relatively few seriously handicapped children will be found, while in a community of two hundred thousand such a large group will be discovered that it is both necessary and possible to provide special treatment and education for them in a centrally located day school. Thus, the larger school systems can set up sight-saving classes, opportunity classes, and special classes of many types, securing expert teachers who can adapt their program of instruction to the needs of a particular group of children; and in consolidated schools

special facilities are more likely to be available than in a single district school.

Because the diagnosis, treatment, and teaching of children who are handicapped or who suffer from defects demand special technical skills and a greater background of training, state and Federal aids are likely to be provided for these children. In all states some aid is now available under social security legislation, and in many states special aids were available even prior to its enactment.

Since the state spends large sums of money every year in institutionalizing children who cannot be cared for by their parents or by the community; since the state must meet in some fashion the extra costs of retardation caused by defects and handicaps; and since the state must spend large sums of money in controlling delinquency and antisocial behavior, it is appropriate that the state spend substantial sums for special education to reduce these larger expenses. Since the problems of the handicapped transcend the boundaries of the particular community or district, the state is justified in making expenditures for prevention, for diagnosis, and for special treatment.

What can the very small community provide? Is this too much to ask for: first, a clear recognition of the existence of handicapped children and an interest in their care; second, the provision of a nurse or a teacher familiar with the needs of handicapped children who can provide some specialized care within limits and who knows where and how to secure medical and educational assistance; and third, a realization of the possibilities afforded by the state in the form of special aids and financial assistance? Some communities are ever on the alert to take advantage of all the opportunities available under existing state laws, while others, through carelessness, indifference, or poor administration, fail to utilize these opportunities.

WHAT THE SCHOOL CAN DO

Since the schools reach all the children in the community in a way that no other agency does, the first thought for a community program centers in the school. Because most handicaps affect

school progress in one way or another, the need for their early recognition, in order to provide effective training, is well recognized. For instance, classroom subject matter comes to the child mainly through the sensory inlets of vision and hearing; hence any serious defect in either vision or hearing is likely to affect school progress. There are children with serious deficiencies who have been in school for many years without being recognized as handicapped children by either teachers or parents. And sometimes such a child is considered a trouble-maker or a problem child, only to have his difficulties in adjustment and social relations cleared away later by appropriate treatment.

Obviously, then, the first contribution of the school should be a thorough system of periodic medical and psychological examinations of all children. These examinations should include careful and accurate tests of vision and hearing. The second contribution of the school should be the establishment of special educational facilities for groups of handicapped children or its provision within the established program for special attention to the individual handicapped child. Modern practice stresses, instead of complete segregation, a combination of experience with other handicapped children and participation in normal activities with normal children. Such a program involves facilities for diagnosis and guidance at both the medical and the psychological level; facilities for remedial instruction and special tutoring; and adaptation of the regular school program of instruction and activities to individual needs.

WHAT THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION CAN DO

From the variety of services and needs that can be listed under the general heading "Handicapped Children" it becomes clear that there is no easy or simple formula for effective community action. The citizens of the community must become interested in the development and maintenance of a good preventive and remedial program. The parent-teacher organizations, therefore, must not only understand the needs of normal and handicapped children but must participate actively in forming the type of

public opinion that will lead to the development of facilities for their care.

Public opinion alone, however, is not enough. Often both legislation and financial support are needed. In any program for children there are substantial problems of legislation at the local, state, and national levels, and with these the citizens should be concerned. Many problems transcend the resources of the immediate local community and can be met only by state-wide legislation. Often the securing of this legislation and the facilities that follow come as a result of surveys or studies made by organizations that, either on their own account or in cooperation with the schools, secure information on the number and types of children needing special services. Facts are better than opinions for calling attention to needs and for securing appropriate facilities. In securing legislation parent-teacher associations have played and are playing a significant role.

The next contribution centers about the maintenance and development of facilities and programs for handicapped children once they have been obtained. Passing a law or securing an appropriation does not in itself guarantee a good program. Special classes, guidance clinics, juvenile courts, hospitals for crippled children, and all other such developments need continuous and intelligent support from the community. Here all organizations that are interested in the welfare of children, especially one of such wide scope as the parent-teacher association, have an important function.

PARTICIPATION IN COORDINATING COUNCILS

In every wide-awake community there are a number of agencies and organizations interested in handicapped children of various types. For example, the school system, the social agencies, the juvenile courts, the hospitals, and the park system are officially interested. But the men's service clubs, the women's organizations, the fraternal organizations, the American Legion, and various special and professional groups, as well as the parent-teacher associations, develop their own particular interests. Often there is

overlapping of functions, with some duplication of effort; sometimes, even, children with major handicaps are neglected. Thus, services for crippled and blind children, who readily attract public attention, are usually far in advance of those for deafened children or subnormal children. Hence there is need in the modern community for a coordinating council to unite and integrate the community efforts of lay, professional, and official organizations and agencies. These coordinating councils not only clear information and plans from one agency to another, but if they are alert to their opportunities they work out a combined and cooperative program that will look to the welfare of all the children in the community. And here lies one of our hopes for the future. In most communities there are resources of time, money, and human energy that, given direction, would help many children to better lives. The utilization of these resources is a community problem to be worked out by the community itself. When we cease to look upon human betterment as the private concern of the few and see it as the common concern of the many, our progress will be certain and our attainment secure.

CHAPTER XIII

INVADERS OF THE CHILDREN'S WORLD

KATHARINE F. LENROOT

Katharine F. Lenroot, the distinguished chief of the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, is internationally known for her efforts in the field of public welfare. She served as the executive secretary of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Her eminence in the profession has been recognized by appointments to serve in various capacities on international bodies, including the Pan American Child Congress.

HOWEVER valuable to a child are the contributions he receives from his controlled environment—the home, the school, the church—in the community he must seek adventure, association acquired through his own effort, and experience in coming to terms casually or permanently with growing numbers of persons in his world.

In our towns and in our rural communities centering in towns, children have early contact with many neighborhood and community activities that have grown up with little or no consideration of their potential effect on children. In crowded cities, children live on the streets as they go to and from school and during the free hours that are not devoted to the home, work, and recreational activities planned for them. They become acquainted with the store, the shop, the factory, street trades, the corner drug-store, the library, the movie theater, the pool hall, the ball ground, the dance hall, the roadhouse, the tavern. They may achieve membership in a spontaneously formed group, club, or gang that gives them the encouragement of group acceptance and the fun of joint adventure.

REGULATION OF COMMERCIALIZED RECREATION

In a well-ordered community these inevitable experiences are safe enough for boys and girls. The community takes pains to deal with any situations leading to practices that are harmful to

the individual, that disregard the rights of others, or that are in conflict with the law. However, in any community there are enterprises offering experiences that may be harmful for individual boys and girls or commercial enterprises that tempt children to an unwise use of time and money.

Boys and girls are unfortunate if they grow up in a community where their parents and the other grown-ups whom they know lack respect for and confidence in their community and its civic leaders, business men, and public officials. In a town where parents belong to parent-teacher associations; where citizens participate with interest in neighborhood and city activities and in elections; where public officials are elected in whom the town has confidence and municipal developments are achieved in which the town takes pride; where it is good form to observe traffic regulations; and where community groups are ready to plan with public officials to provide increasingly better opportunities for children and youth—in such a town there are the leadership and the will to deal with any of the various phases of child exploitation that may arise.

Commercial Entertainment.—Commercial efforts to serve appropriately the needs of children are normal and desirable. Such efforts become exploitation when they encourage serious waste of time and money, gambling, drinking, disregard of property rights, interest in antisocial activities, and irresponsible relationships between the sexes. These influences today are difficult to deal with because of the organizational form of many of these commercial enterprises, which places their owners out of the reach of the communities affected. However, many problems can be dealt with through local managers, and state and national organizations can promote wide acceptance of sound policies and obtain laws to back up the effort made in local communities.

One method of attacking demoralizing influences in the community is to attempt to reduce the demand for them. The opportunity for constructive recreation and activity, if made sufficiently attractive, will make boys and girls less susceptible to activities that have little constructive value or are actually detrimental. All

the resources of the community must be employed: the schools; the churches; the library; the parks, the boys' and girls' organizations; and, most important of all, the parents, at home and organized in service clubs and community agencies, private and public.

Owners Can Cooperate.—A second method of attack is to encourage commercial offerings to boys and girls that are suitable to their age and development. Operators of motion picture houses, managers of bowling alleys and poolrooms, and operators of dance halls are themselves parents and citizens who like community approval and who often consider it good business to run a place that wins respect in the neighborhood. Such citizens, when called into conference with other community leaders, frequently reveal a shrewd knowledge of the dangers to youth that may result from immoderate or unwise patronage of their enterprises. There have been many instances in various cities in which managers of pool halls or dance halls have set and enforced good standards of operation.

The third method of attack is the use of laws and law-enforcing agencies to prevent or to deal with commercial practices that are clearly dangerous to youth. The police officer on the beat who becomes well acquainted with the boys and girls in the neighborhood and who knows the spots where they may get into trouble is the community's foremost aid in the protection of its young people. A police officer who knows that he has the backing of his superiors and of the community in keeping his neighborhood clean can promote the respect of boys and girls for a well-ordered community and for the sort of personal conduct that contributes to such a community. The policewoman who shares in the supervision of commercial recreation and who, because of her training in social work, is competent to deal constructively with boys or girls who are getting into difficulties, is a valuable asset in the police department. She shares with the other police officers in the program of crime prevention; directs young people to wholesome activities or to the social agencies that can guide them in their group and individual experiences; and assists in cleaning up any activities that are illegal under state law and city ordinance.

PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

When, in spite of preventive measures, a boy or a girl gets into serious difficulty involving conflict with the law, the juvenile court may be called upon to plan or to initiate the social treatment needed to redirect the child into activities and habits of behavior that are safe both for him and for the community.

Communities are increasingly equipping themselves with workers who can help parents and boys and girls deal with the problems of social behavior at any stage where difficulty arises. In an increasing number of rural communities the child welfare worker attached to the county welfare department is the social case worker to whom parents, neighbors, schools, and public officials can turn when boys and girls get into difficulties. She can draw on community resources to give help to the individual child, and she can bring to the attention of community leaders the activities that endanger boys and girls. In larger communities protective service for young people is furnished by several social agencies, public and private, which share the responsibility for guiding young people into community life. The visiting teacher or attendance officer in the school; the policewoman in the police department; the group worker in the public playground, at the boys' club, or in the settlement; the probation staff of the juvenile court—all share in the protective service that the community gives the oncoming generation. Some cities, however, are establishing public child welfare agencies that give primary emphasis to the needs of children for individual attention. These agencies offer services comparable to those of the rural child welfare worker.

Social Hazards of Everyday Life.—There are certain types of activities endangering young people today that call for direct action on the part of parents and community leaders.

For example, motion pictures are one of the most valuable modern forms of art; yet certain pictures are definitely not suitable for children. Some protection can be given in any community by enlisting the cooperation of exhibitors in the selection of films and by encouraging parents and teachers to attend the showing of the better films. However, since producers are responsible for

the selection and treatment of subjects and since local exhibitors to a great extent are bound to show films received under block-booking contracts, the local community may be hampered in its effort to deal effectively with this problem. Something has been accomplished by enlisting the cooperation of producers in the selection and treatment of film subjects, but Federal action will probably be needed to release the hold of block-booking contracts on local exhibitors so that they may be in a position to cooperate with community leaders in providing the right kind of films for boys and girls.

The radio is also a pervasive influence that is largely beyond the control of the family and the local community. It is receiving study and must be considered from a national viewpoint.

A number of states have laws forbidding the exhibition and sale of salacious literature to minors. Federal laws exclude obscene and indecent literature from the mail and from express service. Under Federal and state laws or by local ordinance local communities can deal with this problem. Effective cooperation on the part of parents, educators, churches, social agencies, and the police can bring common sense to bear on the suppression of the sale to minors of any literature that may contribute to mental ill health, neuroses, and sex obsessions and perversions.

The dance hall and the roadhouse are two modern commercial institutions that may offer either wholesome or unwholesome recreation to young people seeking companionship. If such places are properly licensed and supervised by the police and if their managers join in setting standards acceptable to the community, they need not be a danger to young people. However, it is obvious that if opportunity is offered for drinking, gambling, and promiscuous sexual relations and if boys and girls are permitted to frequent such places without proper supervision, these places of amusement may be demoralizing. In most communities there is plenty of law to deal with such situations. What is needed is an alert public consciousness to back the police in enforcing the law.

Taking a chance is a normal human impulse. Yet the habit of gambling is an expensive and irresponsible habit to acquire.

The operation of slot machines in corner drug stores and in places of amusement is undoubtedly a lucrative business; but for boys and girls it represents a too accessible opportunity for wasting money that is needed for other purposes. Here again the community attitude is responsible for the community practice. If the community wants to protect its boys and girls against this temptation it probably can do so, as most states have laws against gambling that can be enforced locally. Training at home, at church, and at school will equip most boys and girls with the sense of responsibility that will enable them to resist intemperate indulgence in petty gambling.

THE ADVANCE OF SOCIAL HYGIENE

The social hygiene movement has made marked progress during the memory of this generation. The problems of vice suppression are being more intelligently handled. The more healthy and scientific attitude of society toward sex and toward a healthy sex life is resulting in better-informed boys and girls, who have the knowledge they need to guide them in safe relationships with the opposite sex. The recognition of venereal diseases as health hazards dangerous to the community as well as to the individual, and the practice of dealing with these diseases through public health clinics all over the country, have brought into the light of day a hidden danger largely ignored until the last few years.

Realization that segregated districts where prostitution is tolerated not only fail to protect the men and women in the rest of the community but invite organized commercial exploitation of women and girls has led to the abolition of previously tolerated districts in most of our cities. Here again the laws and ordinances are frequently better than their enforcement. The community that backs up its law-enforcing agencies and equips them with staffs qualified to conduct crime prevention programs, to give adequate supervision to places of amusement, and to provide constructive social treatment to persons who become involved in situations leading to prostitution will go far toward protecting its young people against this most serious social danger.

The recent concentration of men in military training camps and the sudden influx into many communities of construction workers and war factory workers have created problems with which many of these communities are ill equipped to deal. In some areas there has occurred a period of social disorganization, when there was little opportunity for wholesome recreation for soldiers or industrial workers and when certain commercial interests took advantage of the situation to make opportunities for illicit activity easily available. The danger affected the young people living in these communities as well as the newcomers.

Soon, however, constructive community forces began to assert themselves. Chambers of commerce, churches, clubs, and parent-teacher associations began to provide opportunities for recreation and companionship under proper auspices. The Federal Government, as a part of its provision for health, welfare, and related defense activities, established a division of recreation in the Federal Security Agency to aid states and communities in organizing recreation programs. Funds were appropriated and raised to provide and operate recreation facilities. The movement proceeded more rapidly in areas of military concentration than in industrial areas, but the scope of the program is broad enough to cover both. To serve its objectives more fully, however, it needs to be extended and developed.

With reference to control of vice in such areas, the military, naval, and civil authorities agreed that the only effective program was one of suppression. A division of social protection was established in the Federal Security Agency to cooperate with state and local law-enforcing agencies in dealing with the control of prostitution in local defense areas, and Congress passed a law permitting the establishment of zones around military and naval establishments within which the military and naval authorities can cooperate with the civil authorities in suppressing prostitution. These policies provide strong backing for community measures to deal with this problem; but as yet the program has a weak point, namely, the inability of understaffed local police agencies to deal adequately with problems of law enforcement in areas

where military or industrial activities have caused great increases in population. Community leadership must find the means of strengthening the law-enforcing agencies.

Necessary as all these community measures are for the protection of children and young people, the primary protection for each boy and girl is to be found in the standards for individual and group behavior that are acquired through teaching at home, at church, at school, and in recreation and through observation of the sense of social responsibility displayed by the adults of the community.

CHILD LABOR AND YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been for many years deeply concerned with the social waste involved in child labor. As to what constitutes "social waste" in respect to childhood and youth, different types of society have had widely varying ideas, and in no field perhaps has there been wider divergence in concepts of children's needs than in the field of child labor. It is the American conviction, in this twentieth century and in this democracy, that children require freedom during their first sixteen years of life to attain to normal physical, mental, and social development through growth, education, and recreation. It is our conviction also that, in view of their immaturity, their work during their first few years in industry, trade, and agriculture should be subject to special regulation and supervision by the Government. We believe that these advantages should be guaranteed by legislation, on the ground that, as the parent is responsible for the welfare of his own children, so the Government, as parent of the nation, has certain responsibilities for the welfare of all its children.

It is because of these convictions that child labor legislation specifying a basic sixteen-year minimum age for employment has been advocated by this and many other organizations whose deepest concern is the welfare of the child as the keystone to the arch of the nation's welfare. These convictions brought into being the child labor provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Stand-



ards Act of 1938, dealing with interstate industries; encouraged improvement in standards of state legislation, until now fourteen states have a basic sixteen-year minimum for employment; and animated public support of an amendment to the Constitution that would give Congress power to enact child labor legislation effective throughout the country and in intrastate as well as interstate industries.

With these convictions unchanged, parents and teachers are now facing the realities of total war—of a war that must be won at all costs if the democratic civilization for which they have tried to prepare children is to continue to exist. The critical need for more and more manpower for war production has changed the entire picture of youth employment. An increasing army of boys and girls of sixteen and seventeen years and many of fourteen and fifteen and even younger are obtaining jobs—some in war industries, but more in the trade and service industries and agricultural areas from which the older workers have been withdrawn. The educational needs of the growing generation are being threatened by the exodus of hundreds of boys and girls from the high schools of city after city. A facile acceptance of child labor as patriotic service, together with the increased burden placed upon officials enforcing labor laws, is contributing to a breakdown of child labor standards.

A Child Labor Program

A program for any agency dealing with the employment problems of children and young people involves two objectives—one protective, designed to prevent the industrial exploitation and premature employment of children and youth at ages or under conditions of work detrimental to their health, education, or general welfare, and the other primarily educational and advisory, dealing with training and guidance, assistance in obtaining employment for youth of suitable age, and the admission of young people to desirable work experience.

Prevention of Exploitation.—The child labor provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, administered by the

Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, exclude children under sixteen years of age from employment in establishments producing goods shipped in interstate or foreign commerce, except for certain limited employment of children fourteen and fifteen years of age at work other than manufacturing or mining. This work must be under conditions that do not interfere with the schooling, health, or well-being of the children, as determined by regulations of the Children's Bureau. In addition, minors sixteen or seventeen years of age may not be employed in establishments covered by the act in occupations found and declared by the Chief of the Children's Bureau to be particularly hazardous or detrimental to their health or well-being. Exempted from all these provisions, however, are children under sixteen employed by their parents in occupations other than manufacturing or mining; children engaged in agricultural pursuits during periods when they are not required to attend school; and child actors in motion pictures and theatrical productions.

With reference to state legislation, fourteen states ¹ now have laws setting a basic sixteen-year minimum age for employment, paralleling in this respect the Federal act, but there are numerous exceptions to this standard even in these fourteen states. In thirty-four states, the District of Columbia, and the Territories, children fifteen and fourteen years old or, under certain conditions, even younger, may enter full-time employment. The child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act apply only to work in establishments producing goods shipped in interstate or foreign commerce ² and thus fail entirely to cover purely local businesses. State laws, applicable to both interstate and intrastate industries, show great inequalities in the extent of protection given. For instance, although such laws commonly fix a maximum work day of eight hours for children under sixteen years of age, six states

¹ Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

² If a standard fixed by a state law is higher than that in the Federal law, the state standard prevails.

allow a longer work day, and only six states set a work week for such children as low as forty hours.

Among other state laws that protect or benefit boys and girls at work or about to go to work are: (1) compulsory school attendance laws, which in most states keep them in school until they are sixteen years old, except when they are excused from attendance for employment or under certain other conditions; (2) minimum wage laws, which in twenty-six states insure a minimum rate of pay for women and minors; (3) workmen's compensation laws, which in fifteen states provide an increased rate of benefit for minors injured while illegally employed; and (4) laws restricting the employment of minors in places where liquor is sold. Under Federal law, minors benefit from the wage and hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act and from the labor standards required for the manufacture of goods for the Federal Government under the Walsh-Healey (Public Contracts) Act.

Younger workers are tending away from the manufacturing industries, where the better child labor standards prevail, but they continue in miscellaneous kinds of employment less subject to regulation. It is estimated³ that at least three-fourths of the child workers under sixteen in the United States—outside of agriculture, street trades, and domestic service—are employed in miscellaneous types of nonfactory employment not generally covered by the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act and to a considerable extent subject under state laws to lower standards than those fixed for manufacturing occupations.

Employment of young workers in occupations that expose them to industrial risks is not adequately prevented by state child labor legislation or even by state and Federal legislation combined. The special susceptibility of adolescents to industrial accidents and disease has often been emphasized in child labor studies, and it is recognized that certain physical and psychological characteristics of youth, such as lack of mature judgment, im-

³ Estimate based on a study made in 1936 by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor and on reports of employment certificates issued in the different states for children going to work.

mature physical development, and lack of muscular coordination make certain kinds of jobs unsafe for young persons. There are many reasons why young workers have greater need of this special protection now than ever before—pressure for production and consequent increase in the tempo of work; longer hours of work; a large influx of inexperienced workers into industrial employment; lack of sufficient experienced foremen to supervise these new workers; shortages in the safer substitutes for poisonous substances used in certain manufacturing processes; and expansion of industrial processes in which toxic substances are used or produced. Some of these factors are already reflected in an increase in the industrial accident rate.

Agriculture and Home Industry.—A very important field of child employment, as yet hardly touched by either state or Federal child labor laws, is agriculture. The employment of children in industrialized agriculture—on truck farms, in cotton fields, or in cultivating and harvesting fruits and vegetables—presents a serious child labor problem even in normal times. The child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act apply to children in agricultural pursuits only during the periods when they are legally required to attend school. The bulk of agricultural labor—that performed before and after school hours, during vacation, or when school absence is legally permitted—is outside the coverage of these provisions.

In these “factories in the field” children work under conditions entirely different from the healthful outdoor life of many farm boys and girls a generation ago, and the problems arising from this type of unprotected employment have been accentuated by the increasing amount of migration from one agricultural area to another by impoverished and homeless groups in search of work. Young children work from dawn to dark in the fields with their parents. Many are deprived of education and are subject to most unfavorable living and working conditions. Wages for whole families will hardly maintain them even during the farming season. An increased pressure for children to help in farm work at the expense of their educational opportunity began in 1940, and

this pressure has been growing monthly more insistent. There has been all too little intelligent consideration of whether other means of meeting the labor needs can be found. There has been too little planning of ways in which the health, safety, and education of the children can be safeguarded.

Other child labor often performed under harmful conditions includes industrial home work, street trading, and private domestic service. As to industrial home work, during the past few years state legislation and the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act have made a beginning in its control, but administrators agree that complete prohibition rather than regulation is necessary to eliminate its evils. The work of children in street trades and in domestic service in private households is inadequately regulated by law, and these are types of child employment in which many abuses occur.

Further Aspects

Constant vigilance is necessary if this protective legislation is to be more than mere words. Inspections by the Children's Bureau, under the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, have disclosed the use of children under sixteen chiefly in the canning and packing of fruits, vegetables, and sea foods; in the shelling, grading, and packing of pecans and walnuts; and in the picking of feathers in poultry-dressing establishments. Smaller numbers have worked in other employments; for instance, in the manufacture of wearing apparel, shoes, crates, and boxes. Many children have also been found engaged in industrial home work for factories producing such articles as artificial flowers, shade pulls, bobby pins, snaps, paper boxes, and other notions and novelties. Children even younger than fourteen—many twelve and thirteen years of age and some even as young as five, six, or seven—have been found employed. The progressive elimination of these types of employment of children under sixteen, that is, in so far as they are found in establishments producing goods for interstate commerce, may be hoped for as administration of the Fair Labor Standards Act progresses.

The keystone of enforcement of child labor laws is the employment or age certificate, required under most state laws for children going to work. Such a certificate, issued usually by a local school official, is proof to the prospective employer that the child is old enough to be legally employed. Experience has shown that the employer cannot rely upon the statement of the child or the parent as to the child's age, and he is not in a position to sift various types of evidence or to develop standards of reliability of evidence. The employment certificate, issued as it is by persons under public authority with facilities for checking the evidence, gives the employer a reliable basis for certainty that he is obeying the law. The requirement, found in many state laws, that a child must satisfactorily pass a medical examination before an employment certificate is issued, if well administered, insures that the boy or girl is in good physical condition on going to work.

In the administration of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the Children's Bureau has cooperated with the state enforcing agencies, and in nearly all the states the state certificate of age is accepted as proof of age under the Federal act. These cooperative relationships have made possible improved state standards of administration and have added much to the effective enforcement of the Federal law.

Inspections for violation of state child labor laws are usually made by the state department of labor. The Children's Bureau, with the assistance of the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor, inspects establishments shipping goods in interstate commerce to determine compliance with the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Enforcement of state laws, however high the standards of those laws may be, is often hampered because the law itself frequently fails to set up the framework on which good administrative procedures are necessarily based. Strengthening of employment certificate laws, especially in relation to the requirement of reliable evidence of age and state supervision of issuance of certificates by local officials, is urgently needed in many states. Then too, the legislature often fails to provide enough funds for a sufficient

number of trained workers to make possible the protection which the child labor laws nominally provide for children.

Preparation and Guidance of Youth

To guard the future generation of citizens of a democracy, prevention of the employment of youth too early and under unsuitable conditions, important as it may be, is not enough. Attention must be paid to the vocational preparation and guidance of youth and to suitable placement for young persons who have left school. Parents and teachers are particularly concerned with the problems of relating school programs for children to life needs and experiences. Schooling covering at least nine months of the year should be not only available but required for every child, at least up to the age of sixteen. Most young people should continue to devote their time primarily to education up to eighteen or a still higher age, in accordance with their interests and capacities and the needs of society for well-educated and specially trained citizens. Vocational preparation should be provided in school that will encourage the cultivation of sound attitudes toward work and good work habits and give the child both basic abilities and technics of value in a wide range of occupations, as well as a knowledge of modern industry and of workers' problems. Training for specific trades and for business or professional services is also needed. Educational and vocational guidance and counseling, with placement services staffed by properly qualified and professionally trained personnel, should be available to all young persons everywhere.

The Program in Wartime

What part must a child labor and youth employment program play in a country at war? It must play a vital part—an even more important part than in a normal period. The needs of this nation, which must now bend all its energies to the winning of a war for freedom, are twofold—it must produce, and at the same time it must conserve; it must both spend and save. Confronted on the one hand with scarcity of materials and labor shortages and on

the other hand with unprecedented demands for more and faster production of war goods, it must make the best possible use of every one of its resources. And of all its manifold material and human resources there is none more precious than its youth. It is essential to think of the ten million boys and girls between fourteen and eighteen years of age today as the young men and women not merely of the far distant future but of the immediate tomorrow. They must be sound and well prepared in body and mind if they are to do well the difficult tasks before them. They must be more, rather than less, well grounded in the fundamental concepts of democracy; they must be able to make decisions in line with these concepts and to conduct their lives in accordance with those decisions. The schools are the bedrock of democracy, the training ground for citizenship; education must be regarded as a fundamental contribution to the war effort.

The slack in employment of boys and girls out of school and looking for work is being taken up. But at the same time far too little attention is being paid to the safety and welfare of young persons in the new jobs they are undertaking. For young people at work, young people still in school, and young people on the point of leaving school for work, a planned program for both continued education and continued employment is essential if they are to have the mental training and healthful growth that are of more fundamental importance now than ever before.

THE P.T.A. AND THE U.S.A.

Parents and teachers are the persons closest to children and youth during their formative years. These parents and teachers must first discover what is happening to the young people of their communities, particularly in regard to their leaving school and the kind of work they are doing. They must then appraise these conditions and decide what changes are necessary if the essential needs of youth and of the nation itself are to be met; they must develop desirable and practicable policies as to when and under what conditions children should be released from school and recruited into industry, and as to what changes, if any, are needed

in their educational programs; and finally, they must promote these policies and make them effective in the community.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers at its 1940 convention accepted the call to action of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. This conference set forth the following basic convictions of the American people:

That democracy can flourish only as citizens have faith in the integrity of their fellow men and capacity to cooperate with them in advancing the ends of personal and social living.

That such faith and such capacity can best be established in childhood and within the family circle. Here the child should find affection that gives self-confidence, community of interest that induces cooperation, ethical values that influence conduct. Secure family life is the foundation of individual happiness and social well-being.

That even in infancy, and increasingly in later years, the welfare of the child depends not alone upon the care provided within the family but also upon the safeguards and services provided by community, state, and nation

The National Congress, accordingly, launched a three-year program on "The Child in His Community" and has continued on all fronts the activities thereby outlined.

With the outbreak of war in December 1941 it became apparent that the children of the Americas were threatened not only with the danger of hostile attack but with restrictions of health, education, and welfare services because of conditions resulting from the war. To point out these dangers and the effort needed to safeguard the vital interests of children, two important statements of national policy have been issued. A Children's Charter in Wartime was adopted by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime, March 18, 1942. *Young Children and the War—An Educational Policy* was adopted by the United States Office of Education Wartime Commission on March 25, 1942. This policy emphasizes three basic needs of children and youth today—protection, participation, and perspective.

Extending similar programs of action to children throughout the Americas, the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, which

met in Washington, D. C., May 2 to 9, 1942, adopted a Declaration of Opportunities for Children and outlined the national action for each country and the inter-American cooperation needed to maintain essential services for mothers and children under war conditions, to protect children in danger zones, and to plan for children in the postwar world.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, through its representatives, participated fully in the conferences that resulted in these statements of policy and has pledged itself to join in the effort to attain these goals for children both in time of war and in the peace that will follow.

CHAPTER XIV

THE UNIFYING BONDS OF RECREATION

WEAVER W. PANGBURN

As field representative of the National Recreation Association, Weaver W. Pangburn serves as a consultant to recreational agencies in a number of large American cities. He has conducted surveys of recreation in Boston, Baltimore, Kansas City, and other communities. Mr. Pangburn is the distinguished author of *Adventures in Recreation*, *Recreation, a Major Community Problem*, and other publications.

AFTER close observation in the United States, Dr. L. P. Jacks, the well-known English educator, wrote as follows in his book, *Education through Recreation*: "The transformation of the crowd into the community—that, I venture to think, is the summary mission of the entire recreation movement."

Fitting as Dr. Jacks' statement was nine years ago, it is even more timely now. For American communities desperately need unity as the nation undertakes to defend its democratic way of life, if not its very independence. The supreme examples of crowd psychology and the exploitation of it by demagogues are found in Europe. Yet the readiness with which large sections of the American public rally like sheep to *our own* local or state demagogues is ominous.

Strengthening the bonds of community life is a historic function of recreation, although the American people have failed fully to utilize it as such. Down through the centuries, music, the dance, games, and social affairs have created a spirit of comradeship and unity. The folk dances and folk songs of European villages were community events. When Grundtvig, the great Danish leader, laid the basis for the cooperative movement in Denmark, he began not with economic plans but with folk activities.

President MacCracken of Vassar College has given us a striking example of the unifying influence of recreation. Forty years

ago, as a youthful instructor in a Beirut school, he was confronted with a spirit of mutiny among the Arab, Greek, Armenian, and other students. So bitter was the feeling that murderous attacks and stabbings took place. Finally he solved the problem by forming the boys into a club that had a secret password and that principally engaged in education hikes in the community. After these were started, said Dr. MacCracken, "All the mutiny vanished from the school. Lessons began to be learned, history and geography took on new meanings, and classes in writing now had themes to write about. Greek forgot to hate Arab, and Arab forgot to despise Armenian. The spirit of recreation had . . . restored good will and friendly intercourse among the students."

The secret of this unifying power of recreation lies deep in the fundamental human hunger for self-expression. What would any mother think of a child who did not play? She would call a doctor, knowing that it is through play that the child develops normally. To remain normal in adult life, people must find constructive expression of their emotions and their thoughts in recreation as well as in work. Thus, when people engage in games and sports, hunting and fishing, camping, mountain climbing, travel, music, dancing, drama, gardening, clubs, crafts, or any other familiar recreation, they are simply attempting to satisfy the normal demands of human nature.

Science constantly gives proof of the healing value of recreation. If you visit a modern hospital for the mentally ill you will learn that dancing, crafts, music, and games are part of the accepted program of treatment. An authority on health will tell you that outdoor recreation is an effective agent in the prevention of tuberculosis. Modern reform schools and prisons utilize recreational interests as a means of discipline and of preparing men and women for readjustment to community life. One of the latest crusades in the United States is that against venereal diseases. What do experts in social hygiene say about improving the conditions that lead to these diseases? They advocate community provision of athletics, parks, playgrounds, dancing, glee clubs, debating clubs, drama, and hiking for young people.

OBSTACLES TO COMMUNITY RECREATION

If recreation is so fundamental and for centuries was a community expression, why do millions of city children have no access to playgrounds? Why are school buildings so difficult to secure for recreational purposes? Why do rural young people go running to town for their fun? Correction of these conditions calls for plenty of courage and perseverance among parent-teacher associations and other civic agencies working for community improvement. It is well to face the underlying problems frankly. Three of them will be mentioned here. The first is the grip of commercialized amusement; the second, the growth of institutionalized recreation; and the third, public attitudes toward local government.

Passive commercial amusement is the most obvious leisure-time activity in the United States. When extensive leisure appeared, people who had gadgets for passive amusement to sell promptly grabbed the lion's share of the public's spare time and spending money. Much passive entertainment has a softening and weakening influence, while simple, unsophisticated recreation in which skill, vigor, and teamwork are developed through *activity* is wholesome and disciplinary. Recreation, as Stuart Chase has said, should not be vendible.

A second factor affecting community recreation has been the understandable devotion of many people to the special organizations to which they belong. In the last quarter-century recreation has become popular with churches, semireligious agencies, organizations serving boys or girls, nationality groups, and other exclusive institutions. Thus, to put it bluntly, we have Catholic recreation, Protestant recreation, Jewish recreation, Polish recreation, recreation for boys alone, and recreation for girls alone. No one would suggest that such organizations have less recreation for their members. However, our need to strengthen democracy demands that all cooperate to develop community recreation as well.

Opposition to or distrust of local government, which often should administer community recreation, is a third cause of the backwardness of recreation in many cities. Sometimes this attitude has been well earned by inefficiency or corruption. Elsewhere

vested interests foster it for selfish purposes. One deficiency of the older municipalities that seriously affected recreation was failure in city planning. Some cities grew up without plan. No sound control of housing was maintained; parks and playgrounds were not considered. The result was the disease-breeding slum, with the all-important open spaces missing.

A recent visitor to New York, like thousands of others before her, had a "wonderful" time but at the end said, "I would never want to live here." "Why?" she was asked. "Well," she answered, "I am used to grass." Today we are doing a much better job of planning, particularly in the newer sections of our cities, which are not built up. The old, neglected sections must be wiped out or rehabilitated.

As the United States looks to the future, recreation must be made more nearly universal and public provision of it must be enormously extended. Only so can the millions of low-income citizens share in it. The waste and extravagance of much of our commercial amusement must pass. How can the American people, with their mounting taxes and necessity for economy, afford such waste? The recreation of private institutions has an important place and will continue, but it should never be thought of as a substitute for widespread public recreation that is inclusive and not exclusive.

A WORKABLE PROGRAM FOR COMMUNITY RECREATION

A sound program for recreation starts with the home, involves the school in an important way, and is developed on a community basis, often under public auspices.

The home that does not serve in part as a recreation center fails by that much of being complete. The slogan, "The family that plays together stays together," has considerable meaning in a day of easy divorce. Since families rarely average more than two children, the group recreation that came about so easily and was so educative in the days of big families is now not so easily managed. The solution is to become familiar with a variety of activities suited to small groups and to extend home activities fre-

quently to the children next door. The failure of many families to have real home play has little to do either with the physical arrangements of the home or with the small size of the family. Principally it is due to the selfishness or thoughtlessness of parents. If the spirit and determination are present, people can manage much valuable family recreation in spite of obstacles.

An ingenious parent finds ways to make use of the attic, the basement, the back yard, and even the garage for recreational purposes. Many new homes have special recreation rooms in the basement. If no special room is available, a corner of the dining room or of another room or some other part of the house can be utilized. The list of possible play equipment in recreation rooms, of activities possible in the home and in the back yard, of supplies and equipment, of feasible outdoor games is much too long to enumerate here. There is a growing literature on home and family recreation with which every parent should be familiar. Just to suggest some of the equipment and activities, however, the recreation room may include a blackboard, wooden blocks, mechanical toys, and tools. Among the great number of table games are cards, checkers, chess, puzzles, and dominoes. Handcrafts range from soap carving to pottery and from sand modeling to weaving. Among the activities feasible are puppetry, story telling, charades, music appreciation, singing, discussion of current events, game nights, gardening, stunt nights, a wide variety of outdoor games and sports, and no end of hobbies.

THE SCHOOLS AND RECREATION

The right use of leisure is one of the seven cardinal objectives of public education. Today we hear little mention of leisure, because many people are working overtime in war production and are glad of the extra pay. After the war, however, the attention given to the leisure-time problem will doubtless be greater than ever. The schools have several responsibilities in relation to recreation. Although the statement is contrary to the practice of many, their obligation and opportunity do not end with the children who are actually enrolled in the school. They have an obli-

gation to these children long after they have graduated. The education of today should anticipate the needs of these graduates when they go to work, get married, have their own children, and move on into the middle and later years of life.

It is fair to ask the public schools whether they are implanting a knowledge of good reading in pupils, so that after graduation they will be inspired to read substantial books and magazines instead of trash. As to physical education, it is fair to ask whether the schools are teaching activities that can be enjoyed beyond the years of the strenuous "big-muscle sports." In other words, are the schools teaching tennis, badminton, folk dancing, swimming, or shuffleboard as well as basketball and football? Is natural science made a deadly bore or a pleasant adventure, including nature games, collections, and excursions to the parks and to the country?

The starting point in examining the implications of leisure for the schools is with the admission of candidates to teacher training institutions. A problem of education is to place teachers with buoyant, life-loving personalities in all the classrooms, not just in those having an obvious relation to leisure. Is Dr. MacCracken heretical when he asserts, "Of course there is nothing new in the notion that since children have to learn, they might as well have a good time while they are learning." When we secure the right kind of people as teachers we have gone far toward making the business of learning a pleasant experience and it will be none the less a pleasant disciplinary experience.

The next point is that the curriculum of teacher training institutions should include subject matter having to do with leisure, recreation, music, drama, arts, crafts, and nature and that such courses should be motivated by a community approach.

Third, the texts and curriculums of the schools should reflect the recreational interests of community life. This should be true of mathematics, reading, and English, as well as other subjects.

In the fourth place, junior and senior high school courses should introduce the students specifically to community recreation and should inspire them to take a positive attitude toward it as participants and as citizens.

Fifth, school property should be designed and built with a view to much use after school hours as a part of the community recreation system. There should be three to five acres of outdoor recreation space adjacent to every elementary school and a minimum of ten to twenty acres at junior and senior high schools. All school buildings should have gymnasiums or large recreation rooms, auditoriums, kitchens, and miscellaneous other rooms suited to clubs, crafts, and sewing, so that the school may serve as a community center. Gymnasiums and auditoriums should be located on the ground floor and made accessible to the general public. It should be possible to shut them off from the classrooms and to heat them separately.

Finally, the board of education should be represented on the official commission or the community committee responsible for the community recreation program. The schools have a big interest in the success of this program, which should build on and not in any way destroy the effects of good leisure-time training in the schools. This is not to say that the schools should be loaded with responsibility for the recreation program unless there is no prospect that the work can be well done under other public auspices.

THE COMMUNITY PROGRAM PROPER

In undertaking the recreation program, a community approach rather than a one-sided or unbalanced approach is usually assured by the formation of an outstanding and representative citizens' committee to launch the effort. A first step for any such group seeking to organize community recreation is to learn what already is being done. This, as Sherlock Holmes often said, appears "elementary." Yet groups are continually starting cheerfully to work without paying any attention to existing activities. There is, for instance, the lady in a very large eastern city who was "one of a group of civic-minded people" who had organized to correct a "deplorable situation." She wrote to the National Recreation Association, saying, "Our city is poverty stricken insofar as outdoor recreation is concerned. We have many lovely parks but, alas, no playgrounds for our children." The truth is that though the city

was below standards as to facilities and program, it was operating 148 playgrounds, 22 swimming pools, and 41 baseball diamonds, among other outdoor facilities. It had recently expended several million dollars on these and other recreation properties.

While it is not possible here to outline a community program in detail, the general principles on which such a program should be based can be stated. The first is that in cities with populations of 8,000 to 12,000 or above, depending upon local conditions, it is desirable and feasible to have a permanent department or bureau for year-round public recreation, with at least one full-time, trained superintendent. Several hundred cities have such departments. In most of them such agencies are tax-supported and are separate from other tax-supported departments, such as schools or park departments. Experience indicates that such a program usually works best under independent control, particularly if its policy-making power is vested in a board or a commission. Of year-round recreation departments, only a small minority are under school jurisdiction. A somewhat greater number are subordinate to park departments.

Full-time, trained, paid leadership is the key to a successful program in a city. It is useless in most cases to try to run a recreation program with a superintendent who has been trained for some other profession. It is also wise to beware of selecting a person who is too highly specialized in one or more interests, such as the major sports, physical education, sociology, or music. Look for a person with general training but with an enthusiastic, vigorous, decisive personality.

There should be a distinct and separate budget for recreation. This should not be hidden in a welfare department, school, or park budget. If it is out in the open and precisely known, the public can consider its adequacy on its own merits.

Another principle (and a very important one) is that all suitable city-owned property should be available in the program. That means school, park, water board, and other property.

A diversified program is another index of a growing and successful department. As the program grows it should, so to speak, be

four-dimensional. It should spread in terms of space to all neighborhoods, but first to the less privileged ones. It should reach all ages and both sexes, which is quite an order. As to breadth of interests, it should eventually cover physical recreation, music and dancing, drama, nature interests, arts and crafts, social recreation, and linguistic or speech activities, such as discussions and forums. Finally, as to kinds of people, it should aim at all races and colors and at different economic levels; it should take in the physically inactive as well as the active, the shy as well as the bold, and the sensitive as well as the thick-skinned.

All of this sounds formidable, but obviously it does not start fully developed. A small beginning will suffice if the program is kept growing.

Another word should be said about leadership. The aim is to reach more and more of the public with stimulating interests. The public includes thousands or millions. How can this be done? It is unthinkable that in community recreation we can ever have a paid personnel numerically comparable to that of the schools. The answer is that the professional staff, however small, must be very good, and it must be capable of organizing more and more groups and of training more and more volunteer leaders. The public recreation program is not something to be confined within the boundary lines of a playground or the walls of a community center. Its influence must be continually spreading in ever-widening circles throughout the community. This can be done only by building up an army of volunteer leaders, persons from churches, granges, farm bureaus, schools, clubs, and social agencies. The parent-teacher association can be of much service here.

STANDARDS

It is important to know that there is now a body of standards by which urban recreation programs can be rated. We know that it is reasonable for any community to have an acre of parks and playgrounds for every hundred people, a playground within at least one-half mile of every child's home, a baseball diamond for every 6,000 of total population, a tennis court for every 2,000, and

a swimming pool or bathing beach capacity equal to 3 per cent of the total population at a given time. These are a few of the recognized standards as to property. There are equally well-accepted standards as to the training and experience employed workers should possess, as to administration of recreation, and as to various other factors by which we measure program achievement. These standards are brought together by the National Recreation Association in one publication.

RURAL EDUCATION

In a rural community we can never expect much full-time, paid leadership in community recreation except under some county plan. Volunteers from health, agricultural, home economics, religious, educational, and other agencies must be depended on. The program might be built on what is already being done by a grange or a parent-teacher association. Community councils organized for general ends or county recreation councils have proved effective. As to property, grange halls, church halls, and even empty stores can be utilized, as well as school buildings. An increasing number of schools, especially consolidated schools, lend themselves to a recreation program. In some places there has been a tendency to center too much on fruit, flower, or other festivals, which have become commercialized and do the local citizens little good. It is best to give most attention to hobby shows, parties, picnics, volley ball, horseshoes, and other interests closely associated to the rural life. There is still a big job to be done in the rural field in influencing county superintendents of schools to include meeting rooms, recreational equipment, and libraries in school buildings.

ROLE OF THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

In 1937 when the Los Angeles Playground and Recreation Department faced a crisis, the parent-teacher associations came to the rescue. This municipal department could not meet the demands made on it by a rapidly growing city because its millage tax had not been increased. The parent-teacher associations accordingly

came forward promptly and sponsored a charter amendment calling for an increase in the department's funds from 4 cents to 6 cents per \$100 of assessed valuation. With this strong organization in the van of the campaign, the voters of the city adopted a referendum providing the increase, thereby increasing the department's annual revenues by 50 per cent.

Recently, in Indianapolis, when the Mayor's Advisory Committee on Recreation undertook to put the playground staff on a merit basis and otherwise to strengthen the whole municipal recreation program, the parent-teacher organizations gave their strong backing. The plan went through, and a long list of benefits has resulted in this city.

To take an example from a village of 1,500, a parent-teacher association in Connecticut carried out programs in family and home recreation, organized evening activities in school centers, held afternoon teas for mothers and community dances for high school groups, conducted two programs to survey the recreational opportunities of the community, provided a teacher for square dances after school, and cooperated in the fencing of a playground and in providing motion pictures for five schools.

We have, in the foregoing examples, methods employed in a variety of communities to assist in community recreation. The things that thousands of associations are doing or may do are numerous and extremely varied. They range from supplying a piece of apparatus for a playground to initiating efforts for a public recreation department in a large city. Whatever these influential and community-minded organizations undertake will have value. Especially valuable in these critical days will be projects that increase the number of competent leaders and serve to unify communities through democratic and inclusive activities.

CHAPTER XV

THE COMMUNITY WATCHES ITS STEP

FRANK W. HUBBARD

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THE night patrolman stumbled over a scooter in a gutter. He whipped out a flashlight. An exclamation escaped his lips as he saw the small form beside the scooter. Next day the newspapers reported: "Hit-and-run driver claims another victim. No clues." In dozens of homes that evening parents winced as they read the news and silently prayed that it would not happen in their families.

Yet the toll of death and injury goes on year after year in every community. Individually we resolve that it must stop; collectively we do little or nothing. We demand more laws; we criticize the police; we urge the schools to get busy—but usually we do nothing fundamental to help. Blindly we ignore the power of the parent-teacher association to act as a living force for community action and improvement.

SAFETY IN THE MODERN WORLD

Sometimes we think that the modern world is a rather unsafe place. We long for the good old days before the appearance of the automobile and the other mechanical gadgets that continually maim and hurt. Then, sick of the modern world, we turn to *Grandmother Brown's Hundred Years* (or to any dozen similar books) only to find ourselves wondering: "How did they ever live through it!"

Back we come to our own world, with a realization that it isn't

a bad place after all. The mechanical contraptions are conveniences that often safeguard our health, in spite of the peculiar dangers that each one brings. In safe hands the automobile is a useful servant. Behind most mechanical dangers in the modern world are human beings. If the human beings can learn to behave in a safe manner, hazards can be reduced to a minimum.

"But," says someone, "it is cowardly to be worrying about safety all the time." It would be more accurate to say that it is the height of wisdom. The cave man who lived safely as well as adventurously survived to tell his grandchildren of his exploits. Modern industry has proved that safety practices are accompanied by greater efficiency in production. Safety in commercial aviation tends to increase air travel. In business, then, safety pays cash dividends. In community living it pays even greater rewards in freedom from physical and mental pain.

Years ago our ancestors thought nothing of using water from contaminated sources. Doctors performed operations under the crudest conditions. In dozens of ways people endangered their lives because they did not know any better. Today the will of the community, by laws and public opinion, prevents violation of health rules and if necessary punishes the violators. In time the modern community will restrain those who endanger themselves and others by neglect or ignorance of the rules of safety.

VARIED ASPECTS OF COMMUNITY SAFETY

The number of accidents, the severity of the outcomes, and the dramatic spectacle that accidents afford have led most of us to think chiefly of the traffic problem. Statistics give support to this worry. In 1941 nearly 40,000 persons were killed in motor vehicle accidents. Four in ten were pedestrians; one in ten was a child under the age of fourteen years. It is really food for thought that every two years motor vehicles and traffic accidents kill more persons than the total number of American soldiers killed in action in the first World War.

We must not be misled into thinking that the years 1943 and 1944 are necessarily going to be any better. True the manufacture

and sale of motor cars for civilian use has been stopped. Will that mean fewer cars, loaded with more passengers than usual and rolling on thin, smooth tires? If so the hazards are to be multiplied. Not only that—we have the dangers of military motor convoys, blackouts, volunteer workers in wartime activities—all changes in our usual patterns of behavior. Without special alertness the next two or three years may bring an increase in motor vehicle deaths and injuries.

But as parents we have little reason to congratulate ourselves when the statistical reports reveal also the home accident situation. In 1941 more than 30,000 persons died in home accidents; 5,000,000 suffered injuries that in many instances will impair them for life. Often “no one was at fault”; nevertheless, grandmother slipped on the stairs, mother skidded on a rug, sister stood on a rickety chair, dad got hurt trying to fix the furnace, and the toddler knocked over a hot coffee pot. Fires, electric shocks, unlocked medicine cabinets, and faulty gas appliances bring their share of trouble when neglected or unwisely handled.

So-called “public accidents” are chiefly those resulting from drowning, transportation (excluding motor vehicle accidents), and firearms. Accidents under this classification took nearly 15,000 lives in 1941. These accidents also constitute a part of the community problem. Properly supervised recreation, limitations upon firearms, and control of transportation facilities are civic responsibilities in which we all must share.

Finally, another large area for accident prevention is that of industry. It was in this field that safety programs first received systematic attention. Here also the greatest amount of progress has been made. Yet each year in the occupational field at least 15,000 persons are killed and 1,500,000 injured. Persons who live on farms and in small agricultural towns are aware of the peculiar hazards of farming. Persons who live in an industrial city or a coal mining town are aware of different threats to their security. In residential areas industrial accidents are relatively few. What most of us need to do about industrial accidents depends largely upon the type of community in which we live.

THE SCHOOL ACCIDENT PROBLEM

On the basis of the statistics collected by the National Safety Council it is possible to estimate that each year about 1,500,000 school children are injured. Very few of the accidents are fatal. Most of them occur on the streets, in school buildings, or on playgrounds. One in four of the so-called "accidents to school children" happens when the child is at home.

When we consider that about 30,000,000 children are at school every week day it is clear that schools are relatively safe places. Yet few of us would think of operating on any other basis than the statement: "Any preventable accident or injury is one too many." From surveys that have been made, certain conclusions may be drawn: (1) Accidents to school children tend to increase with increase in the number of children and with intensity of their activities (hence playgrounds and gymnasiums contribute a large proportion of the cases). (2) Accidents are less frequent where adequate adult supervision is provided. (3) Injuries in organized recreation are less frequent when the equipment is satisfactory and the players properly trained. (4) Fewer accidents occur in classrooms and shops, on stairs, and on the streets when the pupils are guided by a comprehensive safety program. (5) No safety program is effective if it does not penetrate to the interests, attitudes, and enthusiasms of children.

The last-mentioned point deserves further comment both for parents and for teachers, since it is the key to all good education. We not only need to *know* what is safe, we must also *want to do* the safe thing. Many safety programs fail to produce permanent effects because children are compelled to do what adults want done. Safety stunts, plays, songs, poems, and similar teaching devices may be effective but often are not because they do not line up a child's behavior behind purposes and ideals that are acceptable to him. This principle explains why ten-cent Christmas toys are often more fascinating than those that are more elaborate and costly; the child responds instantly to any plaything, however inexpensive, that implements some especial interest or desire of his own.

AREAS OF ACTION AND IMPROVEMENT

If we want to have safe communities it will be necessary to set about the task with as much intelligence and persistence as can be mustered. If we are merely "playing" with the idea of safety, the outlook is rather hopeless. Periodic safety campaigns are of value only if combined with a comprehensive and continuous program. To carry forward such a program requires people who will give their time to studying the community situation, investigating programs used in other places, and working together cooperatively.

Persons who have been engaged in safety activities for many years are agreed that a complete program involves the three E's—engineering, enforcement, and education. The possibilities of these aspects in relation to specific problems require brief comment. Items 1, 2, 3, and 4 (below) are general community problems; item 5 chiefly involves the school. Space has not been given to public safety or to industrial safety, although these are often aspects of a total community program.

1. *Traffic Hazards.*—The basic aspect is that of engineering; planned streets, traffic lights, traffic signs, systematic inspection of vehicles, and elimination of dangerous curves and intersections are a few of the specific details. Engineering must be reinforced by enforcement—adjustment of laws to community needs, trained and incorruptible police, licensing of qualified drivers, and freeing of courts from political influence. Finally, there must be a continuous plan of education to bring about knowledge of the engineering and enforcement devices, understanding of the necessity of playing the game according to the rules, and public opinion to support the police, the traffic engineers, and the will of the law-abiding majority. Any community may have these safeguards if it is willing to elect competent public officials, to support them in their tasks, and to tax itself to pay the necessary costs.

2. *Alcoholism.*—Surveys show that drunken drivers behind the wheel of the automobile have caused many accidents. A fact less well known is that many pedestrians who are injured in traffic have also imbibed so freely as to be irresponsible. Basically alcoholism is an educational problem. Newspaper and magazine ar-

ticles, lectures, study groups for adults, and school instruction are helping to spread the facts and to build constructive attitudes. For the present, however, the problem is one of enforcement. Where the police have developed technical skill in proving drunkenness and where the courts have not been lenient in imposing penalties, real progress has been made. Too frequently, however, the people generally have not supported enforcement. Overcoming indifference and building up standards of behavior are educational tasks for parent-teacher associations and other civic groups.

3. *Youth and the Automobile*.—In proportion to their numbers, young people between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four have more traffic accidents than do persons in any other age group. This may be explained in part because they participate so frequently in such a large variety of activities. It must also be recognized that young people are often lacking in judgment and appreciation of consequences. When alcohol enters in, the problem becomes discouragingly complicated. In the first place, we must recognize that young people are a part of the total community structure. It is up to them to help make the community safe. They must observe the rules of the game and take the penalties for misplays. Like the Prodigal Son, every young person encounters situations in which he must "come to himself."

In the second place, the problem is one of helping young people to set up standards of behavior that are acceptable to themselves and to the community. In some places parent-teacher groups have agreed upon conditions under which young people may use automobiles. Student body rules and school clubs have helped to set standards. Ultimately, however, all these attempts to establish community force will depend upon the wholehearted cooperation of individual parents. The fact that some communities are succeeding with plans similar to these supports the old adage that "where there's a will there's a way."

4. *Home Accidents*.—Many fatal home accidents happen to children under the age of four years. Young children are smothered accidentally by blankets, burned by hot kitchen appliances, or injured by poisons, knives, and similar hazardous things that

should be kept under locks. This should be remedied through the influence of parent study groups.

Another major contributor to accident statistics is the long list of mishaps of old age. Persons over the age of sixty-four years frequently have serious falls. Carelessness in housekeeping, failure to become reconciled to the infirmities of old age, and lack of thoughtfulness are contributing factors. As in many other areas, the failures are not so much weaknesses in equipment and facilities as they are the failures of human nature. No group is better situated to stop the losses from home accidents than is the parent-teacher association. Systematic study of the most frequent types of accident and determined efforts to eliminate faulty facilities and to build "safety-mindedness" are necessary. Lectures, inspection tours, and movies will help, but there is no substitute for the town meeting method by which individual citizens resolve that "these dead shall not have died in vain." Children should be expected from an early age to carry their share of the home safety activities.

5. *School Accidents.*—The first requirement in this area is a safe condition of buildings and facilities. Any community that tolerates a fire trap is inviting disaster. New buildings should include safety facilities, and parent-teacher groups should insist on this. The few dollars sometimes saved under the guise of economy may be repaid in tears.

The administrators of every school system should know the principles of safety. They should systematically examine the school building, require fire drills, and provide materials and trained personnel for first aid. The school's activities must be designed to develop child interest in safety "for self and for others." One of the best devices is the school patrol—in the school, on the playground, and on the street. Its duties give pupils realistic activities, develop the sense of responsibility, and promote an interest in the safety of others. When these patrols fail it is usually because the members are not properly trained and supervised by adults or because they engage in such foolish and dangerous activities as directing street traffic. Sensible rules have been developed for the organization and direction of patrols, and there is no excuse for

not conducting them in strict accordance with proved patterns.

With the development of bus transportation, schools are faced with another source of accidents. The experience of many communities is that transportation hazards can be reduced to a minimum by providing (1) safe buses; (2) trained, mature drivers; (3) systematic bus inspection and repair; (4) definite efforts to train pupils in the proper use of transportation; (5) trained, alert bus patrols; and (6) continuous supervision by the principal to see that safety measures are consistently observed.

Many accidents that occur on the way to or from school can be eliminated if pupils are taught to follow safe routes. In cooperation with the police, a map can be made of the hazards of the community. Dangerous intersections can be placed under the control of traffic lights, police supervision, and school patrols. Each child can be provided with a map showing the streets he can follow to best advantage. Whether or not children observe these safeguards will depend largely upon whether or not parents consider them important. In this, as in other matters, it will not pay parents to act on the principle: "Do as I say, not as I do."

In recent years bicycle safety has become a problem of importance, and today, when bicycles are being used increasingly as wartime substitutes for automobiles, the problem is growing in magnitude. Years ago, when the bicycle was first popular, there were few automobiles. Today the difficulty would be less serious if bicycle riders did not consider themselves privileged characters. Too many parents contribute to this attitude by chuckling over the recklessness of their children. We must help children to appreciate that they are part of the total community, which is governed by necessary rules of the game. One who cheats as a bicycle rider is just as dishonorable as one who cheats with money, and he may be far more dangerous. The police and schools in many communities are helping by means of bicycle clubs, inspections, licensing, and similar procedures designed to make the individual conscious of his responsibilities. Movies developed under the sponsorship of various agencies, such as the Highway Education Board, may be used effectively.

A FINAL WORD

Underlying this chapter are several basic ideas: (1) that to be safe in this modern world each community must actively support a program of safety; (2) that such a program requires trained public employees and equipment; (3) that the experts and public officials must have the full support and cooperation of all citizens; and (4) that any adequate program costs money and we must be willing to tax ourselves to pay the bills. The present war emergency is making these principles keenly apparent, but they are equally true in times of peace.

Finally, no program will be effective until it becomes a part of the life of each individual. Children and adults have their respective roles to play. We must be expected to do things that we can do. We must be given opportunity to develop skills and enthusiasms through active participation. One of the most useful tasks for any parent-teacher group is that of saving lives and preventing injuries by the continuous stimulation of community safety activities.

CHAPTER XVI

THE CULTURE OF COMMUNITIES

JOHN T. FREDERICK

John T. Frederick has long encouraged the development of native community culture in the Middle West, where he lives. He won wide recognition as founder and editor of *The Midland*, a regional literary magazine, 1915-1933, and is now professor of modern letters at the Medill School of Journalism, Northwestern University. Countless listeners follow the suggestions given on his national radio program, "Of Men and Books."

IN TIMES of stress, when we are prone to express our opinions and convictions most vigorously on a multitude of subjects, the definition of these subjects becomes especially important. The word "community" is adequately defined elsewhere in this book. Perhaps the present chapter should begin with a definition of "cultural influences," at least to the extent of making clear what is meant here by "culture."

Most of the activities and experiences which, summed up, compose our lives are utilitarian. They are part of the business of living. We walk to the store to buy food for a meal. We inspect the bunches of carrots to select those which are most plump and most uniform. We write a letter to the storage company about a bill we have already paid. We wash soiled clothes so that we may have clean ones. But there are certain activities and certain experiences we seek not as means to any practical or utilitarian end but as ends in themselves. Sometimes we walk, not to go to the store or to the post office, but for the sake of walking—for the sake of the young green along the river or the sunset red in the west. We rejoice in flowers in the garden or linger lovingly over their arrangement in the living room, not because they are worth so much a dozen, but for their own sake, their color and fragrance and grace. We read poetry and look at good pictures, not to find out how to make a bigger profit on a dozen pairs of shoes, but for the

sake of an immediate and intrinsic magic of beauty and release. We listen to music, purest of all the arts, for the sake of the music alone.

There are, then, activities that are not utilitarian and experiences that are valued for their own content and not as means toward some external and practical end. In the broad sense these activities and experiences are cultural; and the sum of such activities and experiences constitutes the cultural life of the community. The nonutilitarian definition, it is true, includes those activities and experiences which are religious, and these we shall not attempt to discuss here. At the other extreme it includes purely recreative and playful activities—games played for their own sake, not for profit, and the many things we do, as we may say honestly, “for fun.” Between these two fields and partaking of the nature of both lies the field of the arts—all the arts, even the art of the jack-knife and that of the steel guitar. Art at its best and greatest is very close to religion, perhaps inseparable from it; certainly the greatest art is essentially religious. At the other extreme, the most humble and most widely practised of the arts contain large elements of play, of pure recreation, and often are not easily distinguished from these. Nor is the distinction important. It is, however, in this middle field of the nonutilitarian side of life—the field lying between religion on the one hand and mere recreation on the other, the field of the arts in the broad and true sense—that we find the proper area of our present subject, the cultural influences of the community.

CULTURE CUT AND DRIED

Before considering specifically the forms that cultural activities may take in the community and their relation to the common aims of parents and teachers and to the integrated aims of the parent-teacher association, it may be best to deal directly with two rather common misconceptions—false ideas that have tended to be associated especially with the term “culture.” One of these is the notion that culture is something to be imported into the community or imposed upon it from without—something to be spoon-

fed to the community at intervals by certain chosen spirits. This conception is wholly false—disastrously and doubly so; false to the arts and false to democracy. There was once a ruler—certainly not democratic in his convictions—who defined his duty to the people as the provision of “bread and circuses”; material security, represented by bread, and, for the nonutilitarian side of life, spectacular entertainment in which great masses of men might find common and vicarious expression. We recognize such thinking as totalitarian; but do we realize how much of it—in effect, which is what matters—obtains in our own communities? Have we ever realized how much of our total nonutilitarian experience comes from the movies, the comic strips, and the radio serials, and how truly these are “circuses,” in that they ask and indeed permit only passive and standardized reactions?

Even cultural efforts that are very good in themselves may have actually a deadening influence on the life of the community if they are not integrated with a philosophy of culture as a living and local thing. A yearly concert by a great orchestra provides an evening of exciting and intense musical experience for many persons, and in that it is good. But its net effect is bad if the community settles back with the feeling that it has had its music for the year and must wait until the orchestra comes again for any further significant musical experience. The concert fulfills its real end if it stimulates the enjoyment and study of good music in homes and schools through records and the radio—the marvelous tools the modern world gives us—and especially if it brings about the formation or enlargement of local groups and classes for the actual playing of good music.

A woman's club may bring to town a book reviewer who delivers a dramatic summary and interpretation of a new novel. Listening to the reviewer may be a pleasant and mildly exciting experience. It is not only fruitless in any genuine cultural sense, however, but destructive of the personal integrity of the listeners, if it becomes an easy and general substitute for real reading. The literary lecturer fulfills a real cultural function only if he causes his listeners to read for themselves, with increased appreciation and

understanding, and reveals to them in some degree the relation between literature—both old and new—and their own lives. Culture is not an external or alien thing, to be put on like a Sunday shirt and taken off again. It is a part of our lives, to the extent that we are alive to beauty and meaning everywhere in the world. It lives where we live, in our homes and on our everyday streets and in the homes of our neighbors.

And neither our homes nor our everyday streets nor the homes of our neighbors are lacking in the talent that is its best exponent. Why should our communities go so far afield for cultural influences, when a far more integral influence exists at home? Many a fine talent is starved of its full fruition because its possessor cannot leave his home and his home has no recognition and no encouragement to give him. This leads to the second common and destructive fallacy in much of our thinking about culture and the arts, which is the notion that artists are rare, exceptional, and highly specialized persons, distinguished by the possession of a vague quality called "genius," and that the practice of the arts should be limited to these persons. It is true that great artists are rare and that they possess exceptional powers. But it is also true that each one of us possesses in some degree the same powers that in their highest development distinguish the great artist.

Furthermore, it is true that for each of us the training and use of what artistic power he does possess will increase his enjoyment of the work of the great artist and will yield, in itself, unique and significant pleasure. My ability at drawing may be limited indeed; but if I have really used and developed that little ability, I shall bring greater understanding and capacity for enjoyment, all my life long, to good pictures by great artists, from Rembrandt to Frederic Remington. And the fact that I have once used hand and eye together in making a simple charcoal drawing of a vase—working freely, with delight, for the sake of the picture itself—will mean a certain psychological growth and discovery, highly personal but positive, that I could have gained in no other way. The aim of a democratic plan of education should not be the selection at an early age of children who possess apparent special abilities in the arts



Photograph by Ewing Galloway

and the provision of opportunity for creative expression only for them, the rest being denied it. Much less should any system of economic, social, or racial differentiation be permitted to operate in such a way that only the children of certain parents have an opportunity to develop in the fields of the arts. Nor should the concern of the community for cultural and creative expression be confined to the schools. Adults need the same opportunities.

THE COMMUNITY'S NATIVE CULTURE

A constructive program for cultural influences in the community will consist, therefore, primarily of continuous and participative local activities rather than of occasional elements brought from outside and demanding only passive reaction. It will be a program for all, not for a chosen few. It will be a program that recognizes that the highest good in the arts comes from the practice of them and that this good can and should be enjoyed in some degree by everyone. The parent-teacher association, because of the unique position it occupies in community life, is well suited to the development of such a program.

Perhaps a first step in a definite survey of possibilities for community effort toward cultural experience is recognition of the cultural and creative elements in certain activities not usually thought of as artistic. Craft work of all kinds, for example, may contain creative elements of the highest value; and since craft work of some kind is done in almost every school and every adult community, recognition of the positive opportunities in this field is of the highest importance. Briefly, craft work is creative to the extent that it is original—to the extent that the craftsman derives from it, over and above the profit and satisfaction of making a useful object, the pleasure of making a beautiful one—and one which is in some sense his own, the product of his own design, the expression of his own vision. It is obvious that little of the craft work in our American communities meets this artistic requirement, and it is equally obvious that for much of the work this is necessarily so. There can be no place for originality in the making of a crankshaft for an automobile. In most industrial

work in which the hands of the worker play a sufficient part to justify speaking of the work as a craft, the only possible ideal is rigid adherence to the established design. But there are large fields in which this is not true. The best positive example in our general experience is perhaps the growing interest in the designing of dresses by young girls in sewing classes, 4-H Clubs, and the like. Here the making of a useful article is enhanced by an element of inventiveness and originality that gives creative significance to the whole job. There is no reason why the same meanings and rewards could not be extensively realized in furniture making and in the various crafts that are being more or less importantly revived or developed in many communities—woodworking, weaving, metal work, and so forth. Granted a certain uniform standard in relation to the utilitarian end of the work, it is always possible for the individual worker to increase his pleasure and self-expression through introduction of original modifications of the given design or through creation of totally new original designs. In such ways the level of interest of the whole output will be raised; really good craftsmen will be developed; and each participant will derive from the work an increased portion of the craftsman's best reward, joy in his work.

In the schools, craft work of all kinds is often wholly dominated by the industrial ideal of perfect reproduction of a given pattern. This applies not only to those crafts in which it is appropriate but to those in which freedom and originality—within obvious limits of utility and common sense—are highly desirable. There is no reason why boys in woodworking classes, for example, should not be encouraged to develop their own designs—rather, there is every reason why they should be. The value of craft work for adults, especially the value of any kind of manual work for persons whose means of livelihood gives them little motor expression, is just beginning to be recognized. The provision of facilities and leadership for such work by adults may constitute a community service of high cultural significance. In all such efforts, and in the schools as well, the use of local rather than imported materials and the development of crafts and designs already existent in the community

rather than those brought in from outside are in the highest degree desirable.

Another field in which cultural values may be found is dancing. Dancing we shall always have, no doubt, of varying degrees of goodness and badness. The best dancing from the creative point of view is that which is most individual, that which gives most opportunity for improvisation and originality, and that which contains definite dramatic or comic elements. The wide interest in folk dances should be beneficial from the cultural standpoint. As leaders acquainted with the principles of modern dancing become more generally available, we may expect the contribution of dancing to the genuine cultural life of the community to be increasingly important. As an art it tends to be democratic and to carry a large degree of intrinsic significance and reward. Provision of good leadership and suitable places and formation of groups for democratic enjoyment of real dancing are community responsibilities and opportunities too little realized thus far.

THREE MAJOR CULTURAL FIELDS

Each of the three major and most generally recognized fields of cultural significance—graphic and plastic art, music, and literature—offers special values and special problems in community development. Provision of good pictures for members of the community to look at is becoming increasingly easy as really good reproductions become less expensive and traveling exhibitions, both of reproductions and of originals, become more widely available. The parent-teacher association has pioneered widely in both directions and continues to promote these important facilities.

Although here, as elsewhere, a narrow attitude is to be deplored, it would be well to emphasize the purely American element more than we have tended to do in the past. Worthy contributions of American artists in all three fields are abundantly available. Especially are the works of the finest modern American painters accessible to us, and these pictures we should all come to know and enjoy. Arrangement for the showing of a traveling exhibition at school or library and purchase of a picture or two from it through

democratic selection and subscription have proved fruitful means of increasing enjoyment of good pictures in many communities. In the schools, the actual work in the graphic and plastic arts is sometimes very good and sometimes very bad. It is easy for inadequate or overburdened teachers in this field to have recourse to mechanical and stereotyped devices of various kinds, which may have some degree of initial usefulness in the development of purely technical ability but which are destructive of all real cultural values in the work if they are made its chief substance and purpose. Parents and teachers may well take note of the deadening influence on the art work, in many schools, of total dependence on copying, dictated designs, and the like—and the part played to this bad end by the selfish interests of manufacturers of these devices, which are much more profitable than the simple materials that fully suffice for really creative work.

The field of the graphic and plastic arts is made perilous, also, by the ease with which utilitarian and even commercial ends may be confused with truly cultural aims in this field. Cartooning, advertising layout, and commercial design are often found in the "art" departments of schools and colleges and in the comparable activities of adult groups. Although artistic elements enter into these, they are not arts and their ends are not truly cultural, since the end sought is always external to the work. The work is not valued primarily for its own sake. The just utilitarian importance of such activities is not to be denied. But it is imperative that they should not be allowed to usurp the place of the genuinely cultural activities or to obscure their importance.

Of the three major arts, music is perhaps least susceptible to distortion or defeat through misunderstanding of its nature and the ends to be sought in relation to it. There can be no doubt that the appreciative hearing of good music has greatly increased in America in recent years, and there can be little doubt that it will continue to increase. But opportunities for easy and inexpensive musical experience are still unrealized in many communities. Good records are becoming less expensive but are still too costly for many homes. The provision of an ample collection of such

records, with good reproducing equipment, for the use of the public should be as much a matter of course in a modern community as the existence of a public library. Parent-teacher leaders might consider regular music hours in which carefully planned programs of records are accompanied by brief comments; these should be relatively easy to arrange. Courses of study in musical appreciation for adults can be built around such collections. The use of modern records and radio broadcasts for increased musical experience in the schools offers, of course, the richest and most significant of opportunities.

What is needed if we are to have a great democratic musical art in this country, however, is the balancing of our rapidly growing musical experience with similarly increasing opportunity for musical expression. The multiplying of musical organizations, both in the schools and among adults, and the broadening of existing organizations to include more members and more forms of musical activity, are ends to be sought. The competitive element that has been so strongly present in some activities in this field is to be deplored. It emphasizes the wrong values. It is important to give recognition and special training to gifted persons, but it is far more important to give everyone who wants to play or sing a chance to do so and to make the personal gains of active participation in music possible for all. The best musical projects and activities are those which are self-contained and self-sustained within the community; which depend less on publicity and uniforms than on real enjoyment of music; and which utilize to the fullest the special musical resources and materials of the community itself.

As to literature, perhaps less can be done or should be done in relation to it than in relation to the other major arts. Yet few of us can be satisfied with the reading habits of our neighbors or ourselves; and thought directed toward specific local ends may bring results. Few public libraries are utilized fully. Few are adequately integrated with the life of the community and its special needs. Often librarians recognize possibilities they lack time and means to realize. The parent-teacher association may find great

opportunities for service to the cultural interests of their communities in this way.

In our schools, reading is sometimes robbed of the creative and truly cultural elements it should possess by insistence upon merely factual and informational reporting of books. The student should be urged to seek and value imaginative experience in reading; and in telling others about what he has read he should be encouraged to try to share that experience rather than to give a synopsis of the story or a list of the characters and the dates of their births and deaths.

In the name of creative writing many crimes are committed. Spoiled little girls, usually those whose mothers once cherished literary aspirations, are encouraged by misguided teachers into the endless production of lamentable jingles under the name of poetry, while the truly creative vision of more sturdy spirits is stifled and rejected as crude or commonplace. The standards of young writers are distorted by teachers' praise and by the publication in school periodicals of what is thought to be clever or to conform to literary convention rather than of simple and honest writing about actual or imagined experience. In most of our local communities, as a young writer develops he may have to look across the continent to find publication for a good poem or a good story, and he may sadly lack intelligent and sympathetic friends.

All of these undesirable conditions can be remedied; and all of them must be remedied if we are to achieve a vigorous and democratic literature in America. Local newspapers might well cease their frantic efforts to ape metropolitan journalism and devote part of their space to publication of the work of local writers, as community newspapers did in earlier generations. Support of a well-guided and democratically edited literary publication in the schools is extremely important as a contribution to community culture. And in the schools we can insist, and insist until we are heeded, on the recognition of creative values both in reading and in composition, and on honest efforts to make those values accessible to every child. The "experience curriculum in English" recently suggested by the National Council of Teachers of English

provides ample concrete procedures toward truly creative ends, both in literature and in composition, at all levels.

CREATIVE CULTURAL VALUES

Dramatic productions offer rich opportunities for cultural development of our communities. Too often these opportunities are wasted because of trivial or counterfeit dramatic material or because of stereotyped direction and acting. The most valuable dramatic productions from a true cultural point of view are of two kinds: those "home-made" and spontaneous productions, fortunately increasingly frequent in our schools and occasionally but too rarely met with at adult levels, in which the dramatic materials are written and the production planned and executed by the group itself; and those in which sound plays, either old or new, are earnestly studied and sincerely interpreted by directors and actors whose limitations, whatever they may be, are not those of dishonest or unworthy intention. The parent-teacher association is a valuable sponsor of worthy dramatic efforts.

In this connection the community pageant is more than worthy of consideration. In its conception and production practically every form of native art may have a share, and in the carrying out of its colorful symbolism there may be found a place for every talent. Moreover, it is a form of dramatic presentation that seems to kindle fresh talent and new and ingenious ideas; as the pageant grows—and it literally "grows"—one person after another will come forward to suggest an addition or an amplification, thus making the whole project an individual and original contribution to the culture of the community.

In our whole endeavor to serve the high cause of a true American culture in the field of the arts, we may well consider that the local community and the average citizen in the local community are of the essence of our purpose. We do not want an America of metropolis and provinces, of the culturally surfeited and the culturally destitute. We want an America of integrated, self-reliant communities, in which cultural experience and expression are native and natural and genuine, not remote and ex-

ternal and artificial. We do not want an America in which culture is the perquisite of a few, confined, as though by divine right, to a small and exclusive minority. We want, and we intend to have, an America in which the joy of creative expression and the meaning of creative experience shall be attainable by all. If this is taken as the basis of all our cultural endeavors, we shall achieve in every community a unique culture, impossible of achievement by any other community. The value of such a potentiality in an age of standardization is at once obvious. It is pleasant to contemplate the rich variety of community contributions that would result. And it is no less pleasant to reflect that every child growing up in the community would take with him throughout his life a delightful memory, forever inseparable from the "home town" in his reminiscent musings.

Working to this end, we may hope to bring the cultural activities of our communities into fruitful relationship with other community functions. We may hope to see these activities provide cultural experiences and produce cultural expressions that will be worthy of our communities and of our nation.

CHAPTER XVII

ON THE VOCATIONAL OUTLOOK

JOHN K. NORTON

John K. Norton, leading authority on educational finance, has been professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, since 1931. He is widely known as an author, a research specialist, and a consultant in his field. Professor Norton has served on many national commissions, including the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. He has been a member of the Educational Policies Commission since its creation in 1935.

CHOOSING and preparing for a vocation is one of the greatest responsibilities that young people have to face. This is true both in peace and in war times. Upon the wisdom of the choice frequently depends much of their future happiness, their contribution to their country, and their standard of living, including that of their dependent children.

In most European countries youths generally follow in the vocational footsteps of their fathers. This means that they have little choice. They are born into a certain vocational class and economic level and have little or no chance of rising out of it. In democratic America, it has been proudly stated that a youth's opportunity is limited only by his native capacity and his ambition. This is a democratic ideal that has not been realized by many a mile. Although there are thousands of washerwomen's sons and newsboys who have become famous statesmen, college presidents, doctors, lawyers, or financial magnates, there are millions of vocational misfits and persons with undeveloped talents.

Until recently many American communities have assumed little or no responsibility for guiding youths in the selection of their vocations and have supplied far too little help in vocational training and in placement of youths after they are trained.

Today forward-looking parents and teachers are coming to realize that, although it is more or less exceptional for an elementary school child to determine on a vocation that he later follows, all

elementary school children should come to appreciate the dignity of labor and to realize that a person may properly enjoy the fruits of civilization only by doing his part of the work of the world. Boys and girls should begin learning about this work at an early age.

While the secondary school should continue this phase of general education, it should also provide additional prevocational education and some specific training for youths past sixteen years of age who must go to work immediately on leaving school. Beyond the period of general education, which for those who do not go on to college should average ten years, each youth needs special training for the occupation he or she intends to enter. To this end the Educational Policies Commission recommends that the average amount of schooling for American youths be increased to fourteen years, extending through junior college, and that terminal courses in a wide variety of occupational fields be offered in the latter years of the senior high school and in junior colleges and technical schools.

To select their vocations wisely, youths need all available information as to the vocational outlook—which vocations are expanding and which are declining; requirements and opportunities in particular lines of work; and knowledge of their own talents, strengths, weaknesses, dislikes, and deep-seated interests. This means that vocational information must be collected throughout the nation, as well as in individual states and localities, on such points as present vocational trends and possible future demands. These data, like information as to the stock market, should be kept up to the minute. They should be made readily available to all states and communities to guide them in setting up their training, guidance, and placement programs.

Today industries and vocations, like all phases of life, are characterized by change and complexity. To expect a youth without work experience and without vocational information to choose the job for which he is best fitted and for which society will offer him the largest recompense is asking the impossible. Even with a great deal of help it is not easy to make this momentous choice wisely.

OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS IN THE UNITED STATES

A study of occupational trends in such large divisions of the nation's work as agriculture, manufacturing, transportation and communication, trade, clerical occupations, and public, professional, domestic, and personal services helps one to appraise in general terms the occupational needs of the nation and the direction its economy is taking. It also shows the shift in occupational emphasis and in the use the nation makes of its workers.

The accompanying table shows the number and percentage distribution of all persons gainfully employed in the ten major occupational groups from 1870 to 1940. Among the chief occupational trends revealed in this table are these:

1. Agriculture, which engaged the attention of approximately half of all persons gainfully employed in 1870, has steadily declined, requiring only 17.5 per cent of all workers in 1940.

2. The percentage of the nation's workers doing domestic and personal service has remained more or less constant for the past seventy years.

3. The proportion of all workers engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industry increased a little from 1870 to 1900. Since 1900, during the years of greatest manufacturing production, this proportion has declined, owing to increased use of improved machinery. The percentage of all workers engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries in 1940 was less than it was in 1870, seventy years earlier.

4. The percentage of all gainfully employed workers in transportation and communication has been increasing steadily since 1870 and today is approximately three times what it was then. This is also true of the percentage of gainfully employed workers engaged in trade.

5. There has been a continuous and rapid rise in the percentage of all workers engaged in clerical occupations. This percentage increase is second only to that of workers engaged in public service.

6. Since 1870 there has been a continuous increase in the percentage of the nation's workers engaged in public service. In fact, this percentage increase has been larger than in any other of the nine great occupational groups listed in the table.

7. There has been a continuous and substantial increase in the percentage of all gainfully employed persons engaged in professional

service. Between 1870 and 1940 the number of gainfully employed persons classified as professional workers grew from 332,179 to 3,583,322, and the percentage of the nation's workers so classified rose from 2.6 per cent to 6.8 per cent.

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED PERSONS,
MALE AND FEMALE, BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1870-1940 *

Group	1870	1900	1920	1930	1940 †
1. Agriculture	5,919,987 47.3	10,248,935 35.3	10,665,812 25.8	10,471,998 21.4	9,271,998 17.5
2. Forestry and fishing	53,196 0.4	177,035 0.6	270,214 0.7	250,469 0.5	270,469 0.5
3. Extraction of minerals	169,499 1.4	581,417 2.0	1,084,751 2.6	980,199 2.0	1,140,199 2.2
4. Domestic and personal service	1,208,142 9.7	2,777,610 9.6	3,534,604 8.6	5,255,803 10.8	5,412,803 10.3
5. Manufactur- ing and me- chanical in- dustries	3,463,781 27.7	9,054,982 31.1	12,457,631 30.1	13,620,875 27.9	13,864,875 26.3
6. Transporta- tion and communica- tion	403,274 3.2	1,456,732 5.0	3,053,783 7.4	3,998,206 8.2	4,874,206 9.2
7. Trade	573,574 4.6	2,232,771 7.7	4,418,751 10.7	6,277,574 12.9	7,277,574 13.8
8. Clerical oc- cupations	311,889 2.5	1,135,204 3.9	2,950,769 7.1	3,829,217 7.8	5,521,297 10.5
9. Public service	70,367 0.6	260,392 0.9	897,024 2.2	1,218,257 2.5	1,518,257 2.9
10. Professional service	332,179 2.6	1,148,155 3.9	1,999,168 4.8	2,927,322 6.0	3,583,322 6.8
Total	12,505,888 100.0	29,073,233 100.0	41,332,507 100.0	48,829,920 100.0	52,735,000 100.0

Read table thus: In 1870 there were 5,919,987 persons gainfully employed in agriculture. This was 47.3 per cent of 12,505,888, the total number of gainful workers in the United States. Similarly read figures for other years.

* Based on data of pages 16-17 of *Occupational Trends in the United States*, by H. Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1940.

† These figures are estimates.

From the standpoint of vocational education, it is significant that the percentage of all workers engaged in each of the first five large occupational groups listed in the table, namely, agriculture, forestry and fishing, extraction of minerals, domestic and personal service, and manufacturing and mechanical industries, has either declined or remained more or less constant during the past seventy years. Vast numbers of workers in many of these occupations require a minimum of training. On the other hand, the percentage of all workers engaged in transportation and communication, trade, clerical occupations, public service, and professional service has increased continuously and rapidly. The majority of workers in these occupations must have some vocational training even before entering them. Many must have months and years of specific training before reaching responsible and highly paid positions. In other words, the occupations that engage an increasing percentage of the nation's manpower are, for the most part, occupations that demand definite training.

These broad general trends are significant; however, they require detailed analysis before they can suffice for guidance and training purposes. Within the ten major occupational groups listed in the table, there are more than 25,000 different jobs, and within these are many thousands of subclassifications.

The distribution of workers among occupations is constantly shifting even in so-called normal and peace times, because of such factors as the application of science; new inventions; labor disputes; alterations in working conditions, such as limitations of working hours, the shortening of the working week, and high or low wages; and changes in habits, styles, fashions, and interests, which cause shifts in the demands for certain types of goods and services. For example, increased demand for automobiles, radios, and electric refrigerators resulted not only in the establishment of vast factories for producing these articles but in the need for thousands of workers to transport, sell, and service them. Changes in the style of women's clothes result in great shifts in factory employment. Similarly, changes in a nation's dietary habits, such as the increased use of fruits and vegetables in the United States, re-

sult in a shift from one industry to another; for instance, from stock raising to horticulture and truck farming.

In time of war, occupational change is enormously accelerated. In such a period it is more important than ever that young people should have wise guidance. Otherwise many patriotic but misguided youths will rush into military service or war industries without training—youths who would render their country a greater service by first obtaining the skilled, technical, or professional preparation that lies at the very foundation of victory in modern warfare. It is very important that ready opportunities for vocational and professional preparation be available in wartime. This the Federal government is recognizing by appropriating hundreds of millions of dollars so that high schools and colleges may give requisite training for the war industries and military services.

In the postwar period an even greater task of occupational readjustment must be accomplished. The economy must be kept in operation if fatal economic collapse is to be avoided. Tens of millions of workers must be retrained and shifted from wartime to peacetime pursuits. It is not too soon to begin thinking and preparing for this unprecedented period of readjustment.¹

Federal census data show broad occupational trends over ten-year periods, but these data should be kept more closely up to date—over five-year periods. During a war, certain types of information should be available even on a monthly basis. Such information might well be provided by agencies concerned with guaranteeing an adequate supply of "manpower." In peacetime, less frequent but accurate information should be available as to shifts in the number of workers needed in the 25,000 or more occupations. This calls for periodic state and community surveys of occupational trends. The Educational Policies Commission sums up the problem as follows:

Occupational education can be built only on a foundation of accurate, comprehensive, and continuing information. The scope and

¹ U. S. National Resources Planning Board. *After the War—Full Employment*, by Alvin H. Hansen. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. 19.

complexity of vocational life makes this essential. It is the responsibility of education, in cooperation with other agencies wherever feasible, to assemble facts as to the requirements of all types of vocations, as to occupational shifts and trends, as to wage scales, conditions surrounding work, means of securing employment, facilities available for occupational retraining or upgrading, and similar types of information. This requires occupational research affecting national, regional, and state conditions and trends. It demands that each community maintain continuous surveys of local occupations and their requirements as a basis for a program which takes account of unique and peculiar needs.²

SUPPLY AND DEMAND FOR WORKERS

Information as to the number of workers now employed in various occupations and estimates as to the number needed in the more or less immediate future can be secured from national, state, and community surveys, such as those outlined in the foregoing paragraphs. Unfortunately such surveys are not being made to any great extent, despite the fact that information resulting from them is the only sound basis for setting up widespread programs of vocational training, guidance, and placement.

Up to the present time little has been done toward the scientific formulation of social policy concerning the training and effective use of the nation's manpower. Three fourths of our young people leave school not trained for any particular job. They enter the ranks of unskilled labor, in which wages are lowest and unemployment is highest. Reducing the supply of unskilled labor is one of the biggest jobs facing the schools and colleges of the nation. Lack of a social policy concerning the training and effective use of the nation's manpower also causes boys and girls to train for occupations that are already overcrowded. When they are graduated, they join the ranks of the unemployed or receive far lower wages than they should. Others train for work for which they have little innate capacity. In both instances the state has more or less wasted the money spent in training these young people, and their own

² N. E. A. Educational Policies Commission. *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1940, p. 93.

time and effort have been poorly used. Some youths are fortunate in selecting and training for jobs for which they are well fitted and in which there is a shortage of workers. They get not only enjoyment from their work but relatively large financial returns. Money spent on their training is one of the state's best investments.

One of the best measures of supply and demand for workers in lines of work requiring approximately the same ability and the same length of training is wages paid or salary received; a relative scarcity of trained workers in certain occupations frequently accounts for the fact that higher wages are paid in these callings.

Training a larger number of boys and girls of high native ability for skilled and professional jobs, in which wages and earned incomes are comparatively high, will increase the national income and the general economic well-being of all the people. The maximum number who should be so trained is reached only when the cost of the training is greater than the increases in wages resulting from this additional training. Research shows that this condition will not be reached in the United States for a long time to come. When a state spends money on the right kind of education it is making an investment that later will yield large financial returns.

Occupational surveys of each community and region, kept continuously up to date, will show the points where there is the greatest scarcity of workers, where wages are highest, and where training facilities should first be extended. Such surveys will also show which callings are already oversupplied, in which callings wages are low and unemployment frequent, and in which directions training facilities should perhaps be curbed rather than expanded.

A second criterion that should help in deciding what types of vocational training ought immediately to be increased is the question: What are the fields in which an increased output will be of greatest social importance? Today, the answer is plainly "The war industries." In the present emergency, the nation needs increased production of battleships, airplanes, tanks, guns, and other war equipment. This calls for many skilled workers. Also there is a greatly increased demand for technical and professional workers—machinists, nurses, doctors, chemists and physicists, to name only

a few. Thus the war only heightens the trend shown by every census in recent decades; namely, a decline in the proportion of unskilled labor and a corresponding increase in callings requiring preparation—ranging from clerical to professional services. One recent investigation concludes:

Extensive studies generally agree that when the occupational field as a whole is considered, there is a declining demand for common labor of the strictly brawn type and a growing demand for workers, classified all the way from semiskilled to highly trained technicians, professional workers, and executives.³

It was the untrained worker who suffered most in the depression of the 1930's. In the postwar period it seems likely that the worker with little foundation in occupational training will find it much more difficult to maintain, and certainly more difficult to improve, his economic status than if he had expended real time and effort in preparing for some expanding calling.

The shortage of skilled and professionally trained workers to meet present war needs is so great that thousands of youths are being rushed through short courses to fit them for special jobs in the defense industries. The urgency of the times requires this hasty and narrow training. The munitions industries have been set up in such a manner that large numbers of semiskilled workers can be put quickly to work. For the time being a large proportion of the nation's manpower will be manufacturing war material. Definite plans, however, must be made for the postwar period, when millions of workers will be thrown out of employment who have nothing to offer but the simple skills learned for a job that no longer exists.

This all leads to the conclusion that facilities for vocational education should be extended so as to increase greatly the number of persons receiving training for the upper levels of the trades and technical occupations and for the semiprofessional and professional fields. Preference should be given to these vocations. Young persons trained in them will be able to earn the largest incomes,

³ N. E. A. Educational Policies Commission, *op cit.*, p. 84.

and increased output in these fields will be of the greatest social importance.

After the war it is imperative that there be some kind of co-ordinated national program for better balancing the number of jobs and the number of workers available in different occupations. Under such a program the number trained will not be a hit-and-miss affair; unemployment will be greatly reduced; wages on the whole will be higher; and the general economic well-being of the nation will be increased.

WHAT AGENCIES SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE?

Occupational education, properly conceived, is a community responsibility. It must also be considered in its regional and national aspects. Its importance to the nation's well-being calls for cooperation of many groups. Schools and colleges, independently and working with other agencies, have a major responsibility. A recent opinion poll conducted by the magazine *Fortune* shows that the general public expects schools to continue and extend their present facilities for occupational education. One of the reasons given for this attitude was that the "schools have the continuity and economic detachment to do the job." Commenting on the poll, *Fortune* states:

Public schools have already made an impressive start in vocational training, now covering as many as 175 fields. Here, apparently, is a strong public demand that schools extend those facilities and assume a still greater share of the job. . . . The opinion that the school system should take the lead in training a new supply of skilled labor is practically universal in the United States.⁴

President Roosevelt, under date of July 22, 1941, addressed the following letter to the American College Publicity Association:

The message I would emphasize to you this year is that America will always need men and women with college training. Government and industry alike need skilled technicians today. Later we shall need men and women of broad understanding and special aptitudes

⁴ "The Fortune Survey: XX," *Fortune*, 19, (April 1939), 107.

to serve as leaders of the generation which must manage the postwar world. We must, therefore, redouble our efforts during these critical times to make our schools and colleges render even more efficient service in support of our cherished democratic institutions.

The Educational Policies Commission, after an extensive study of the problem as to what agencies should be responsible for vocational education, reached the conclusion that "best results are likely to be obtained when schools and colleges develop cooperative relationships with other agencies properly concerned with occupational education. Cooperation with industry in providing adequate training and retraining is essential. It is also important that the legitimate interest of labor in this area should find expression."⁵

Vocational education is to a considerable extent a job for educational institutions. They should not be expected, however, to give extensive and specific training for thousands of occupations. Two things they can do. First, discover basic skills and understandings needed in groups of occupations. For example, what arithmetic and mathematics are essential to success in many jobs? What knowledge of science? What skill in the use of certain common tools and machines? Second, schools and colleges can carefully select certain vocations for which definite training is desired and which they are specially fitted to give.

Other agencies, such as industry and labor, have large responsibilities for vocational education. It is essential that schools and colleges cooperate with them at many points; e.g., in developing co-operative programs so that skills necessary to trades and industries can be learned on the job, and following up each youth until he is satisfactorily located in a permanent job.

TRAINING AT DIFFERENT SCHOOL LEVELS

There is need for careful thinking as to just what is the responsibility of the elementary school, the junior and senior high school, various types of technical and professional schools, and the college and university in occupational education.

⁵N. E. A. Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 92-93.

Recently this question has been the subject of study and recommendation by a number of authoritative commissions. Among the recommendations made in one or more studies are these: Children in the elementary school should come to know the meaning of work, should begin learning how the work of the world is carried on, and should come to have respect for all types of honest labor. At this level the foundation of effective and sustained work habits should be laid.

Although the secondary school, as a part of its general education, should continue and expand this program of prevocational education, it should realize that most students, except those planning to enter higher educational institutions, need to get and hold jobs immediately upon leaving school. Since the proportion of high school graduates who go on to college is even smaller today than it was in 1900, increasing numbers of secondary school pupils must be provided with the information necessary for initial entrance into an occupation. While boys and girls who leave school at sixteen or seventeen years of age cannot be given extensive specialized vocational training, they can be given preliminary training in skills and requirements common to one or more of the larger categories of semiskilled work. This should be supplemented later by additional training on either a part-time or a full-time basis, provided by the school, industry, or other agency.

More extensive and specific training should be provided those who enter occupational life at eighteen to twenty years of age. This involves terminal courses in junior colleges and lower technical schools that prepare for semitechnical and semiprofessional occupations. As state, regional, and national occupational surveys are made to give estimates of the number of skilled workers needed in various vocations in the near future, provisions for training should be made by regional technical schools and other agencies. Colleges and universities must assume a larger responsibility for training in an ever-widening range of professions.

Provisions should be extended for occupational retraining. According to the Educational Policies Commission:

If it is wise to train a person at twenty, it is wise to retrain him at forty, if conditions make this necessary. Instability and rapidity of change in modern occupational life and the increasing average age of the population make this even more urgent. Otherwise, vocational skills become obsolete, earning power is reduced, or unemployment results.⁶

GUIDANCE, TRAINING, AND PLACEMENT FACILITIES

Guidance services of a high caliber should be included in the programs of all secondary schools, junior colleges, technical schools, colleges, and universities. Only persons with a broad background and balanced discrimination can interpret the aforementioned types of vocational information in the manner that will contribute most to individual occupational success and general economic well-being. The aim should be to equip students with factual information, intelligently interpreted, that will permit them to decide wisely as to their possible success in various vocations.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, through its thousands of local units, has an unusual opportunity to help in creating a sentiment demanding regional, state, and local vocational surveys to make available the data necessary to the development of needed vocational training, guidance, and placement facilities. Most communities have too long overlooked this responsibility. As a result, millions of youths waste time and talents, and the whole nation loses thereby. Parents should demand that their communities furnish not only general education but vocational training and guidance in schools and colleges and that public employment services be maintained to cooperate with educational agencies in the crucial task of "matching youth and jobs." A question every parent should ask himself is this: Has my community properly organized itself for "giving a break" to every youth when the time comes for making a smooth and effective transition from school to responsible adult life? Until the proper answer has been found, parents have done less than their duty to their children and have not measured up to their full responsibility as citizens.

⁶N. E. A. Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE P.T.A. KEEPS FAITH WITH AMERICA

VIRGINIA MERGES KLETZER

Virginia Merges Kletzer is president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. She writes with the perspective of long and varied experience in parent-teacher work and social services for children. A member of many leading educational and civic boards and commissions, Mrs. Kletzer is also chairman of the General Advisory Committee on Maternal and Child Welfare Services of the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

AMERICA has awakened to a new conception of community life. From coast to coast and from border to border there has sprung up a sense of unity and solidarity that binds together our citizens in their communities and our communities in the larger life of the nation to an extent that, with all our national reputation for neighborliness, we have never experienced before. Today we are keenly aware of each other as human beings and of each other's children as the potential leaders and saviors of humanity. There is a breaking down of the old rigid conception of "mine" and "thine," especially where children and youth are concerned. The extension of the parent's affection and the parent's concern beyond the limits of the family to children on the outside, wherever they and their needs are to be found and regardless of race, creed, or social status, is unmistakable, and it is an epic development.

It is not to be assumed, of course, that this feeling of heightened and extended concern has actually sprung up overnight. There are times when it seems to have done so; but that is to be explained by the fact that any huge national emergency, such as the present war, brings into sharp and sudden relief a great many social patterns which in fact have had a slow but steady growth over a number of years. If we look back over the past quarter-century we can see that this is true of the many and various community

agencies and institutions we take so much for granted in our ordinary life today. The old community was a simple thing. Starting with the fundamental trinity of home, church, and school, we have gradually broadened our community consciousness and, gathering momentum, increased our community cooperation until we have an established agency to deal with almost every aspect of our common life. We have libraries, parks, recreation centers, playgrounds, music and art centers; we have hospitals, clinics, community health surveys; we have social workers and agencies for social and vocational guidance. And out of all this has emerged an especial emphasis upon the needs of children and youth. Thoughtful minds all over the country have set themselves the apparently endless task of devising new ways to serve the best interests of that shining hope of the future, that center of all desire, the American child. Such thinking is productive and creative; it brings about tangible results; and the American child, together with all his family, has profited in proportion to the efforts put forth.

QUESTIONS FOR THESE TIMES

But this is not all. There are a multitude of agencies and organizations instituted primarily to provide concrete programs by which happiness as well as health may be brought to children and youth. They aim to solve, or to help solve, some of those vexing problems with which struggles unaided are struggles in vain. How keep the demons and giants in story books where they belong, and not permit them to invade the real world in the form of deadly germs and intoxicants and narcotics and noxious gases, fire-trap buildings and death-dealing motors and high explosives? How satisfy the child's needs for play and play space and playmates when thousands of children are in families dependent for food and shelter on various forms of economic aid? How breed and nourish the virtues of the wilderness pioneers when most children must live in homes where three would be considered a crowd, and many of them in homes unfit for any human use? How fortify the child against ignorance and delin-

quency when nearly a million children of elementary school age are not in school, and school opportunities for hundreds of thousands of children are often deplorable and often entirely lacking?

The social and welfare agencies have aimed high and accomplished much for child welfare, including improvement of home life, education, health, and material security. And to them America is grateful. But in solving old problems they create new ones by their very existence. The more numerous are the groups that busy themselves in behalf of children, the greater is the likelihood of scattered, confused effort and unsatisfactory results; for, as we have been told time and time again, the child after all is one child. He cannot be parceled out, as it were, with his mind dispatched to the school to be trained, his body to the clinic to be regulated, and his soul to church to be guided, while his sentiments remain at home to be refined and sweetened. It is part of what we have grown so weary of hearing discussed as the "complexity of modern life," and those who have at heart the well-being of the "whole child" find it necessary to face squarely a question which a few decades ago was not even asked.

Variously phrased, the question is this: Can these numerous forces be so brought into play, so harmonized, that the child they seek to serve is really served? Is it possible to have such an organization of effort that the great social institutions—home, school, church, welfare agencies—work in effective cooperation, with a minimum of overlapping and a maximum of benefit to the people of the community? We are all familiar with "planned developments" in the laying out of towns and suburban areas. Now, to what extent can we as a nation hope to have the development of neighborhood life so planned that children may not be the pawns of competing interests but may live serenely in a world that sorely needs their energy, their laughter, and their dreams?

THE ANSWERS ARE PROPHEPIC

Parents and teachers have found the answer in a larger, richer conception of that more or less formless something we have learned to speak of as the community. What the individual home is



Photograph by H. Armstrong Roberts

to the children nurtured there, the community is to the agencies and institutions that form themselves within it. Essential to both is that common element of interest which binds individual to individual and group to group. To a certain extent this common element is natural and spontaneous. Children of the same parents have, in the nature of the case, a great deal in common; so have organizations that draw upon the same group of citizens for their membership and support. But to a very considerable extent community feeling may be developed and strengthened by people deliberately doing things together. When all the members of a family or a community are working, even for a short time, on some common task which all recognize as good, something happens to everybody concerned—something that has value over and above the desired good for which the effort was put forth.

Where community life is taken seriously, the community is, in a very real sense, "home" to all the institutions that affect the life of the child. These institutions exist because parents as such, church people as such, taxpayers as such, or club members as such have willed that they shall exist. And no one wills that they shall be weak or ineffectual. Why, then, should it not be a matter of pride for members of a community so to plan their efforts and apportion their resources that all may profit by the shared enthusiasms of the many?

There is something truly fascinating about the idea of "the child in his community," for it links itself with a great truth. There is nothing so fitted to inspire as the eager innocence of childhood. And throughout the history of efforts working toward human understanding and world betterment, there are none more inspiring to contemplate than those which have called upon men and women to join in helpfulness to children and youth. A community unified in common pursuits and common labors is a source of light, at once a beacon and a dynamo. Under the pressure of the modern world's need, community life should in time be molded into stronger and finer forms than most of us have yet been privileged to see. But we of this generation are privileged to work toward the development of that kind of community life

which is essential to the well-being of the children of the United States of America. To provide children and youth with an opportunity for active sharing in the life of the community is one of the most significant tasks of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

FUSION AGAINST CONFUSION

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has never been given to vagueness of purpose or to lack of direction in accomplishing a purpose once determined. Its activities toward the better integration of the child with community life were made, from the very beginning, a matter of careful planning. Finding the conclusions of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy to be sound, inclusive, and highly constructive, the Congress set up a clear and definite schedule of action based upon these conclusions, fitting all recommendations into the characteristic mold of the parent-teacher working unit. This resulted in a program so all-embracing and satisfactory that even when war was declared, some time later, it was still more than adequate to serve as a basis for parent-teacher endeavor. It remained only to add certain specific wartime projects and to reemphasize certain points in the program to which the existence of a state of war had given a new immediacy.

Broadly, this program covered three fields: family life, education, and social welfare in the community. The Congress set out to encourage the best possible family relationships and to work for a standard of living that would assure to every child in America all the essentials of food, clothing, health, and material security. In the promotion of human experiences that mean growth, happiness, and the building of character, the Congress pledged itself to strengthen and extend parent education and training for the kind of family life that is truly fitted to serve as the threshold of democracy. In line with this, economic security for every family, with economic assistance to all who need it, was chosen as a subsidiary goal, and the stimulation of public interest in the problems of adequate housing was included as a necessary part of the work.

The fundamental place of spiritual values in the child's development and the responsibility of both the home and the church in this respect were assumed to require renewed and enthusiastic emphasis. This emphasis the National Congress, by its every public expression and indeed by its mere existence, has given and continues to give today.

It will be readily seen that such a comprehensive view of family life and its influence upon the individual life of the child must open channels of service in a number of varying directions. All, however, must needs be coordinated to serve the supreme purpose for which all exist—the generation and nurture of the highest type of family consciousness and the best sort of family solidarity and loyalty. In the world of the present day the task of producing and conserving such values as these is tremendous. Yet it is one which neither parents nor teachers would desire to shirk; and it is one which no other agency can so effectually perform.

With regard to the many-sided question of education the Congress was faced with an equally complex challenge. It was at once obvious that measures must be taken to urge the establishment and maintenance of state and Federal grants to local school systems, in order to insure a fair educational opportunity to every American child. No less urgent was the necessity to develop public recognition of the educational importance of leisure time and of the need of recreational facilities and services to children in both urban and rural surroundings. Another problem was the extension and development of public library service; this, it was soon determined, would need to include traveling libraries and exhibits for remote rural localities, as well as library advisory service for parents.

This was only a beginning. The educational program included the promotion of child labor laws designed to extend the period of school attendance for children and to protect all young persons from employment detrimental to their full mental, physical, and social growth. It included the advancement of programs of secondary education that would provide a basic cultural training as well as preparation for industrial demands and opportunities; and it

indicated that such training should include vocational guidance, counsel, and placement services staffed by qualified personnel.

A sufficiently large order, indeed! Yet the National Congress has made sure progress in every activity outlined and will continue to make progress even under the handicaps of war and unrest. The education of American children is a paramount consideration. On no account must it be permitted to lag.

The field of social welfare in the community was thoroughly explored also. A broad program of health education and service was advocated, including preventive measures and medical care for the entire population and, especially, complete service for maternal and infant care. The Congress undertook to cooperate with programs of social service for children living under special handicaps and disadvantages, in an endeavor to give every child security and protection within his own home and an opportunity for growth and development in the community. Equality of opportunity for all children, without regard for race, color, or creed, was recognized as essential, and the Congress advocated tolerance and cooperation in this respect in home and school, local and national organizations, and public and private agencies.

A thorough study was made of the conditions under which migrant families were living at the time the program was set up. Needless to say, this early interest in what later became a crying problem of the hour yielded rich results in the way of practical suggestions for parent-teacher action.

Finally, the Congress conceived its own responsibility as including the challenge to translate effectively into the language and activity of everyday life all the findings of research concerning the health, well-being, and education of children. Its extensive publications program, the nation-wide distribution of its study groups, and its constant program of discovery and correlation of trends and activities outside its own boundaries have resulted in a dynamic and nationally effective agency for child welfare—and, incidentally, for the welfare of the community at large. There is hardly a phase of community life upon which the parent-teacher movement does not impinge at some point. And in this very fact

lies the unique fitness of the parent-teacher association for the gigantic tasks at hand.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS LOOK FORWARD

Let us be very definite about the nature of these tasks. Throughout this book community life has been interpreted as presenting new meanings and new values in harmony with the tremendous issues of the hour. We may expect untold gains in the future from this fresh and heightened community consciousness; but first of all we must unite to create the new community in which it may find full and free expression.

What is the foundation of such a community? First of all, the sense of human kinship, of human brotherhood. We have today a saner respect for the demands of human nature and a clearer idea of the ways in which they can be fulfilled than any previous generation has been able to attain. No doubt future generations will surpass us in this respect, as in all others; but we are fortunate in having reached a good and liberal vantage point from which to survey society and the world. From every point of view—economic, religious, social, cultural—our basic problem at present is to learn how to work together as tirelessly and effectively for the common welfare in times of peace as we instinctively do in times of war.

This, then, is our foundation for the ideal community. And its true conception and creation must rest upon a common understanding. To make possible such an understanding at all levels of community life is a task peculiarly suited to the P.T.A., a democratic organization grounded in unity, in freedom of thought and expression, and in total avoidance of partisanship, sectarianism, or commercialism. The parent-teacher movement is a concerted, intelligent effort toward solution of all problems involving child welfare. Its ends are clear to the whole community, for each of them implies the community's good and gives ample opportunity for the exercise of community initiative in the discharge of common social tasks.

The parent-teacher association finds its real strength in the

fact that it works in the neighborhood. Linking association with association links neighborhood with neighborhood. The organization has found the common denominator of all neighborhoods, the welfare of the children. The neighborhoods of its linking are rural and urban; they extend from the Canadian border to the Gulf. They encompass over two million six hundred and eighty-five thousand workers. They offer rich opportunity to children and youth, as well as to parents and teachers, for sharing in the life of the community.

Moreover, the spirit of the parent-teacher association, although it is preeminently one of cooperative service, has its profound implications for the individual member and worker. Members who take the work seriously and have discovered its true inwardness of form and meaning are imbued with a love of the world and of the richly potential generations of the future. They are naturally more than ordinarily sensitive to the forces of good and evil that surround our youth today, and they are possessed with a consuming desire to achieve the utmost possible advances in their time. They will never rest satisfied until the entire human world has been made safe, not only for the children in our own homes and neighborhoods, but for children in communities throughout the world.

CHAPTER XIX

SURVEYING THE COMMUNITY

WILBUR C. HALLENBECK

Wilbur C. Hallenbeck's special interests include adult education and sociology. As associate professor, Teachers College, Columbia University, and director, Greenwich House, New York City, he serves notably in both fields. Early experience as survey director and field worker for several church organizations helped to develop another special interest in building up the church life of the small city.

ON THE FLYLEAF of the little volume, *Schools for Democracy*, published by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in 1939, is a quotation from Walt Whitman:

There was a child went forth every day,
And the first object he looked upon . . . that object he became,
And that object became part of him for the day, or a certain part
of the day, or for many years, or stretching cycles of years.

This is the poet's way of saying that personality is the composite result of the deposits left by all the experiences of living. In our complex modern communities, with good and bad influences all intermingled, it is no wonder that we develop children in whose personalities there are conflicts, inadequacies, and negative traits.

We know that if we are to grow beautiful and healthy flowers in our gardens the soil must be rich and fertile, must contain all the elements that are essential to growth, and must be rid of all the elements that hinder or destroy healthy development. Our communities are the soil, and our children are the flowers. Our job is to keep the soil fertile and rich.

There must be no guesswork about our garden soil. We analyze it thoroughly, and on the basis of the analysis enrich the soil with proper quantities of those elements that are lacking or inadequate, removing those elements that are harmful. The process is the same in our communities. The survey is the analysis.

But the analysis and the survey are made for a purpose. They have no value in themselves; they are useful only as a basis for determining what is to be done.

If we have followed the course of study outlined by this book we have a basic understanding of our communities in three respects:

First, we know what communities are like and how they function; we know the structure of the institutions and agencies that carry on community life in an orderly and purposeful manner.

Second, we know the parts of community life that are directly concerned with the improvement of people, the parts within which problems and inadequacies are all too frequently found.

Third, we know the kind of activities parent-teacher associations can carry on in their communities and the sort of influence they can exert toward making better communities.

If the study has been made in terms of our particular community, we also understand where our own community problems lie and where something needs to be done to make the community better. We are ready to do something about it.

AN OUTLINE FOR ACTION

Our program of action must be approached with great care and thorough consideration. We are in reality dealing with social forces and seeking to control and affect social change. Social forces are exceedingly complicated, and the process of social change has many factors. Without a thorough knowledge of what is involved we cannot expect to be successful.

The survey is an important part of our program, but its importance lies in its relationship to the other parts. There are six steps to be carried out in a program of action.

1. Selecting the problem.
2. Analyzing the problem and its implications.
3. Establishing cooperative relationships with the community agencies concerned with the problem.
4. Making the survey.
5. Planning a program.
6. Organizing to carry out the program.

Let us now look at each one of these steps in turn to see what is involved. Where it is not clear, the why and the how will be indicated, but the most important thing to see clearly is what we should do.

Selecting the Problem.—The first step is to take an inventory of the problems that have become apparent in the preliminary examination of the particular community.

Make a list of these in specific terms. Do not use terms like "children's health," but indicate the particular aspects of this general problem that have become apparent as requiring attention, such as lack of adequate control of communicable diseases; a high rate of infant mortality from congenital and natal causes; or malnutrition and its relation to retardation in schools.

Everyone in the group should contribute to this list. When the list is completed, the group should determine by discussion the relative seriousness of each problem and the feasibility of its study and attempted solution by the group. Certain problems are closely related and can be studied together. For example, there may be several health problems that you will want to deal with at the same time.

When you have completed this step in the process you have decided what you want to do. The next step is planning how you will investigate the many factors of the problem in order to obtain a body of information upon which intelligent action can be based.

Analyzing the Problem.—You will need to establish contact with an expert in the particular field to assist in analyzing the problem and its implications and to consult with you throughout the investigation. Endeavor to find one who knows the field thoroughly, who has an aggressive attitude toward community welfare, and who is sympathetic to the assistance of community groups. Perhaps it is best to have a small committee make such a contact and work out the preliminary analysis. The person whose help you need will probably be found in one of the community agencies. In rural areas he can be suggested by the county agent of the Extension Service.

This step is to eventuate in a complete plan of the survey, in-

cluding the data required, the methods by which they may be obtained, and the ways in which they are to be used. It is necessary, therefore, to make a thorough analysis of the problem, indicating all of its parts and all of its implications.

To accomplish this, a preliminary exploration by a special committee will be helpful. No aspect of the problem should be overlooked. Every related factor in the community life should be taken into account. Other problems touching the main subject will perhaps require attention. Studies that have already been made may provide important data.

The results of this preliminary exploration should then be subjected to discussion to determine the facts or data necessary to a thorough understanding of the problem and the analysis, as well as considerations indicating that specific things need to be done. The most important consideration is to decide how each set of facts should be used. If you cannot indicate clearly how any particular fact can increase your understanding of the problem, it is sufficient evidence that you do not need that fact. This will assure a minimum number of data. And this is important, because those who assemble data always see unnecessary material that is exceedingly interesting. The most serious defect of surveys is that they accumulate many data which are good in themselves but do not belong in the particular study.

The plan can now be set down in tabular form. On a large sheet of paper, in a column on the left, list the data that are to be obtained. In a second column indicate the sources of each set of data. It may be necessary to complete this column later, as sources are located. In a third column state the use of each set of data. A fourth column should show how each set of data will be procured and who will get it.

Reserve space on the left side of the sheet to keep track of the process as it goes on. Set up several narrow columns with such headings as *Assignment Made*; *Arrangements for Obtaining Data Completed*; *Data Partially Gathered*; *Job Completed*. This will enable the person responsible for administering the survey to know the status of the work at any moment.

A committee, a pair of persons or, in some cases, one person should always be given definite responsibility for each item.

On the right side of the sheet, space can be left for notations regarding persons or agencies that may help and the way in which they may help; places where some of the data have already been accumulated or can be obtained, and so on.

There is one possibility to note at this point. A forward-looking social science teacher in the schools, especially the high schools, might well be interested in such a project and might perhaps assign to his students the task of gathering some of the data for the survey.

Establishing Cooperation.—Most problems are not new. You will probably discover that there are social agencies in your community that are working in the area of your problem. This is certain to be true in large cities. In smaller cities there will be fewer agencies; in rural areas there may be no agencies or only nationwide ones. Never forget that these agencies are as much interested in the problem as you are; perhaps even more. They also know a good deal about it. As you work out your program, therefore, they will in all probability bear much of the responsibility. You should never work in any way that could be interpreted by social agencies as opposing or criticizing their work.

Establish cooperative relationships with all the agencies that are operating in the field of your problem before you begin work on the survey. Never let this wait until afterward. They can give much important help. Their counsel will avoid trouble and pave the way to obtaining the facts you need. Their understanding will be a valuable asset in interpreting the facts. They should have a part in whatever suggestions and criticisms eventuate from your survey. These suggestions and criticisms should always be constructive and helpful.

Making the Survey.—Three types of survey should be recognized in connection with this plan: first, the study of a simple problem; second, the study of a general problem; third, the community survey.

The *simple problem survey* is the type that has been recom-

mended. It deals with a single, specific, predetermined problem. It involves relatively few facts and an intensive study in a limited area. It can be quickly completed and will lead to conclusions that may be immediately translated into action. The program involved is relatively simple. With concentrated activity, in most cases, the problem can be solved or get well on the way to solution within a reasonable time, before the group loses interest or becomes discouraged.

Here are several illustrations of the kind of problems that come under this type of survey. Lack of adequate control of communicable diseases involves a study of what has happened in the community when epidemics have occurred and of the effects they have had on individuals, schools, and community life. The study would include data concerning the incidence of communicable diseases in your area; the geography of the epidemics, that is, a spot map of cases; absences from school due to such diseases (by home rooms and classrooms); and tracing of contacts, type of care, school precautions, and variations in length of absence, with probable explanations. These facts would lead to conclusions regarding the points at which control is inadequate, the types of control that could be instituted, and the things that should be done to correct the situation.

Such a problem as retardation in your community school is somewhat more complicated. All the data possible should be obtained from the school: number of cases, chronological and mental ages of children, concentration of cases, school programs to correct retardation (special classes, remedial reading work, and the like). Then there should be case studies of retarded children; these should cover home environment, economic circumstances, number of children, housing, and dietary habits. Psychological analysis of the cases is desirable if a trained person is available. Conclusions should cover environmental and nutritional conditions, maladjustment, and school programs and should lead to recommendation of corrective programs.

The simple problem survey is most desirable for parent-teacher groups, because it provides units of endeavor that can be readily

accomplished within the usual limitations of time, personnel, and facilities. It leads quickly to a program of action, and through a series of such studies a broad and intensive understanding of the community is developed.

The *general problem survey* is more complicated. It involves much more study and more assistance by experts. It is sometimes desirable; in fact, the most challenging problems demand it. If possible the general problem should be postponed until the group has had experience with several single problem surveys and as a result has obtained much more understanding and many more data.

A general problem survey may be illustrated by a curriculum revision in your community school. This survey starts with the assumption that the present curriculum does not adequately meet the needs of the children in your community. As the work of the teachers is so closely involved in this study, they should be brought into full cooperation from its very inception.

Four areas of inquiry are involved in a survey of curriculum problems: first, evidences of inadequacy; second, community backgrounds of the school constituency; third, best curricular practices, and fourth, direct relationship of teaching to the community. In each of these areas a variety of data is required.

1. Evidences of inadequate curriculum include data regarding school attendance, causes of poor attendance, health of children, prevalence and types of disciplinary problems, retardation, kinds of remedial work and results, drop-outs and transfers, work permits, and so forth. Then there should be an analysis of what becomes of the school children; how many go on to high school, how many finish high school, what types of high school they go to, how many enter college, and what jobs are obtained by those who drop out of high school or stop their schooling directly after high school. The purpose of these last questions is to determine the relationship of education to the lives of those educated. Many schools have curriculums that are intended principally to prepare for college, although a large proportion of the young people never go on to college.

These various sets of data must be correlated to make the picture clear and to serve as a basis for interpretations.

2. Knowledge of the community backgrounds of the school constituency makes possible an analysis of the types of pupils who attend the school and of the needs of these pupils. It involves a study of the economic status of all the families; the vocations engaged in by those who work; housing conditions; family life; size of family; nutrition and health; adjustment; health conditions; dependency; and prevalence and types of delinquency.

From this analysis should emerge the needs of children and their parents that the school should endeavor to meet. These needs will be the basis for appraising the present curriculum and will also point to the objectives for a better curriculum. A rather comprehensive analysis of the community is desirable. Sufficient comparison with other sections of the city and with the city as a whole is also essential. If the community is rural, it should be compared with similar communities. Many of the facts obtained cannot be interpreted without these comparisons. For example, when you have the juvenile delinquency rate or the infant mortality rate for your community, you will not know whether the rate is high, low, or average unless you are able to compare it with the rates for other communities.

3. The next thing needed is knowledge of the best curricular practice. A great many experiments have been conducted in recent years with new types of curriculums. Some of these have grown out of an effort to put into practice the newer ideas of our educational philosophies; others have developed out of the efforts of teachers and parents to make their schools more effective. Many of these experiments have had marked success in making more effective and more useful the educational experiences of children. Part of such a study as is here outlined would be to examine these experiments: the problems on which they were based, the ideas on which they operated, the changes that were made, and the results that were obtained.

A comparative analysis of the best curricular practices and of the practices in your school will give many clues to the possibilities

for improvement. Alone, however, it will not give you the answer to your problem. Ready-made solutions to this problem are never effective. Each solution must be worked out in terms of the particular situation. This is only a part of a survey of curriculum problems.

4. The direct relationship of teaching to the community should next be examined. This part of the study undertakes to determine in what respects and to what extent the educational experience of children in the school is related to their lives in the community. It involves factual information regarding many matters, including the use of community facilities in teaching. What are the facts about the community? Have visits been made to factories, stores, social agencies, courts, and city offices? What are the community activities? Do children have organized service projects that are significant in community life? (Paul Hanna's book, *Youth Serves the Community*, tells of many different projects of this type.) What are the relations of teachers to the community? Do they live there? Do they know their community? Do they participate in its organized life? What contacts take place between teachers and parents? Do they know each other? Do teachers visit the homes of their pupils? Are there opportunities for discussion of school and children's problems among teachers and parents? Are the only contacts of teachers with parents concerned with the disciplinary problems of individual children? What of guidance? Is there provision for guidance in the school program? Is there a trained guidance personnel? What is the relationship of guidance to teaching? What of adult education? Does the school participate in adult education activities? Is there a parent education program? Do a large number of parents participate? Are adult education and school programs related?

From the analysis, consideration, and study of these various sets of data, specific recommendations and projects should emerge. This is a big job, perhaps bigger than many general problem surveys, but one in which sooner or later any community group will become vitally interested. With some experience in simple problem surveys and the complete understanding and cooperation of

the school principal and teachers it can be undertaken with much promise.

A *community survey* is a much more comprehensive and complicated study of the community, its people, and its institutions. Such a survey is seldom undertaken except under the direction of skilled and experienced professionals. It is too big for a community group, and even if there is enough enthusiasm to undertake such a large project it is not likely that the interest will continue to its completion. Community surveys become interesting as such rather than for the problems they reveal and the community action that should follow. Because of this, the country is littered with community surveys that have been laid on the shelves and forgotten. Another difficulty is that community surveys at best only point out problems, which in turn must be intensively studied before a program of action is developed. Community groups are more concerned with solving the problems of their communities than with learning everything that can be found out about their communities.

If single problem surveys and general problem surveys are carried on, interspersed with active programs, eventually enough material will have been accumulated to put together in a community survey.

Survey literature should be studied for possible help. Most surveys that have been published are community surveys and consequently are only indirectly valuable. Several, however, will be referred to for whatever help they may give. More important, probably, are a few books that show how to make surveys with more detail of procedure, method, schedules, and so forth than is possible in this chapter.

One of the best rural community surveys that is available, *They Live on the Land: Life in an Open-Country Southern Community*, by Paul W. Terry and Verner M. Sims, published in 1940 by the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Alabama, is filled with important data and is written in a most interesting way. It gives a splendid idea of what a community survey should cover and how facts are used to tell the story.

Surveying Your Community, by Edmund deS. Brunner, published originally in 1925 for the Institute of Social and Religious Research, is still the best handbook of survey methods for the use of rural community groups. Organization, methods, data, schedules, and reports are dealt with thoroughly.

Among the many city surveys, attention is called to three. One, though old, is an excellent example of a comprehensive study reported in brief compass—*Social Conditions in an American City*, by Shelby M. Harrison, published in 1920 by the Russell Sage Foundation. It is a study of Springfield, Illinois. Second, *Middletown: A Study in Contemporary American Culture*, 1929, and *Middletown in Transition: A Study in Cultural Conflicts*, 1937, both by Robert S. and Helen Merrill Lynd, were published by Harcourt, Brace & Company. Both are studies of Muncie, Indiana, and give an extensive analysis of the way its people live. The third is *A Social Study of Pittsburgh: Community Problems and Social Services of Allegheny County*, by Philip Klein, published in 1938 by the Columbia University Press. This is an analysis of the social services against the social and economic backgrounds of that community.

One illustration of a school survey should be included. The latest and in many ways the best is *Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania*, 1940, made by the division of field studies, Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, George D. Strayer, director, N. L. Englehart, associate director. This was published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. It is a comprehensive analysis of public education in this community, covering curriculum, teaching, and administration.

A little booklet under the title *My Community, My Church and Me*, by the author of this chapter, published by the Friendship Press in 1938, may be helpful to community groups in the practical working out of the plans suggested here. It was written especially for church groups but is applicable to any social institution within which a group desires to study its particular social functions.

Completing the survey is simply a matter of carrying on. Your

plan is made; now follow it through. Someone should be responsible for keeping track of the progress of all the committees that will be formed as the division of labor is determined. See that each part of the job is finished and put in shape for use in making the final report.

The report is a task for a carefully selected committee. Its work is to put all of the data together, to correlate the various parts, and to interpret the whole. This is not writing a book but preparing a document for use. The conclusions and recommendations are the most important part. They must grow out of the data, must be clearcut, and must lead directly to action. They depend upon understanding and interpretation that go beyond the data, that involve a general knowledge of the problems and of the personalities and organizations involved. They must be susceptible of practical follow-up in your particular situation. They should be subjected to the discussions and criticisms of the whole group and agreed upon as the best possible result of the study.

Planning a Program.—Out of the study and discussions of the report will come agreement on what should be done. This should be stated in terms of specific objectives and of what it is necessary to do in order to obtain these objectives. This is the plan of action. It must grow out of the particular situation, and no pattern can be set up.

Organizing for Action.—It is also impossible and undesirable to set a pattern for action. Community groups, especially parent-teacher associations, which are accustomed to organized activity, will need no directions for developing a simple organization to distribute the responsibilities and work involved in doing the job at hand in terms of the available facilities, personnel, and cooperation.

Two admonitions are in order. You are a lay group and you will inevitably be working with professional people. Never lose sight of this fact or step over the line that separates the functions of the layman and the professional. Technical matters are the function of trained experts. That is what they are for. The parent-teacher association has always recognized this fact.

Don't get in a hurry. You are working for a better functioning community life. It takes time to bring about social changes. Stable and permanent improvements are not accomplished in a day.

You are on the track toward the building of a better community. No task is more fascinating or rewarding. It will be a satisfying experience. Enjoy it to the full. Let's go to work!

STUDY GUIDE

CHAPTER I

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the two chief characteristics of the community, and why are these significant to people living in a community?
2. How has the automobile changed neighborhood relations both in the country and in the city?
3. In the Federal housing projects in your city, do the through-traffic streets go around or through the area? Why should these through-traffic streets be routed around the area?
4. In your town or city, how would you proceed to determine the boundaries between local communities and neighborhoods?
5. What are the chief problems of your community? What might your parent-teacher association do to study these in order to find out how it can improve the community?
6. Is there a local community council on which the parent-teacher association has a representative? Can the association help in making the work of the council more effective?
7. What are the first signs of the effect of the war upon family life in the neighborhood?
8. Are there needs in the neighborhood or in the local community that should be receiving special attention, such as those resulting from neglect of children, juvenile delinquency, or curtailment of supervised recreation?
9. In how many different ways can you show that the world is actually becoming one community?
10. What can one parent-teacher association do (a) to help win the war and (b) to prepare for a better world order after the war?
11. Is your parent-teacher association representative of the parents in the school? If not, how can more adequate representation be secured?
12. Is there a school in your town or city that does not have a parent-teacher association? What are the reasons for this?

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CHAPTER II

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the outstanding effects of the depression upon your community?
2. Make a balance sheet of the gains and losses of your community for the depression period.
3. To what do you attribute the improvements? The losses? Could the latter have been prevented? How?
4. How does your community compare with other communities of its size, location, and type in respect to health; housing; education; public welfare; crime; wealth and income; taxation, standards of living, vocational opportunities; dependency; race relations?
5. How have the defense effort and the war affected your community?
6. What community problems has the war created, brought to light, accentuated, minimized, solved?
7. Is your community making its maximum contribution to the war effort? If not, how could it be improved?
8. What preparations are being made in and by your community for the transition from war to peace? How can the parent-teacher association help in this?
9. How far is your community from achieving the substance of a democratic society, and in what respects is it lagging?
10. What efforts are under way in your community to discover what it probably will be like and what it could be like after the war? What program is being planned to make the best of your community's

potentialities? In what respects has your parent-teacher association contributed to your community's self-realization?

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CHAPTER III

Questions for Discussion

1. How has your home been affected by the attitudes and practices in other homes in your community?
2. Would parents and children be benefited by closer agreement about desirable experiences for children of different ages? How do you think such agreement can be brought about? Can the P.T.A. help?

3. Observe for one month the extent to which your children are confused by differences in practice in their own home and in the homes of their friends, as expressed by "I'm the only one who is not allowed to _____."
4. How do you use community services, such as libraries, clinics, health and sanitary service, police departments, and boy and girl organizations of various kinds in your efforts to develop feeling for community responsibility in your children? What are some of the projects and activities carried on by your P.T.A. to develop a greater interest in the improvement of community services?
5. Consider each item listed under "Influence of Change." What difficulties have been brought about in your family by the changes? What advantages have you enjoyed because of them? How did change affect home education? Who was most affected?
6. How do you lead your child to see that each individual must rise above his material environment, whether it be ugly and sodden or beautiful and luxurious?
7. How do you cultivate the habit of inquiry and a positive program of study in your family?
8. What is your P.T.A. doing to help provide for children whose homes and family lives are disturbed as a result of the employment of their parents in war industries or of sudden change of residence due to the shifting of occupations?

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- Strain, Mrs. Frances B. *New Patterns in Sex Teaching*. New York: D Appleton-Century Co., 1934 Pp. xvi, 242. \$2 00.

CHAPTER IV

Questions for Discussion

1. What element in the American system of public education makes it unique among educational systems and peculiarly characteristic of American life?
2. What is meant by local control of education? What are its advantages? Its disadvantages, if any?
3. What is implied in the statement that many schools are like small isolated islands set apart from the mainland of life?
4. Can anything significant be learned about public affairs and community life exclusively through reading and discussion? To what extent is such learning satisfactory as compared with learning by actual experience?
5. Is it necessary that all actual experience in community life be deferred until the student has left school? What are some ways in which students still in school may participate in community affairs?
6. Is it a function of the schools to teach the value of service to the community and to inculcate the desire to serve? Why?
7. Looking at the problem of school isolation from the community side, what advantages to the adult community would result from a freer relation with the life of the school?
8. Has anything been done in American schools to correct this isolation? If so, do you think the results indicate enough improvement in conditions, both in the community and in the school, to justify the efforts made?
9. Why is the P.T.A. particularly well fitted to help in bridging the gap between the school and the community? In what ways can this be done?
10. Has the P.T.A., in helping to promote a freer and more democratic relation between the school and the community, any larger function along the same lines? If so, what is this function? What is the relation of a democratic school-community scene to democracy in the larger sense?

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CHAPTER V

Questions for Discussion

1. How do you define religion?
2. In what sense is the current economic and political world crisis religious in character?
3. What is the function of religion in an individual's life?
4. What is the function of religion in a democratic community?
5. List ways in which the home, the school, and the church can be geared together in a child's experience.
6. "Education leads on, to ever new and higher ends." Where does religion fit in with that conception? Can there be any education completely divorced from religion?
7. How can the school reduce prejudice among Protestants, Jews, and Catholics?
8. If it is true that the postwar world will be a better world only if the religious spirit in people makes it so, what steps can organized religion take to aid in the task?
9. What measures should be taken by parents and teachers to make children religiously literate?

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CHAPTER VI

Questions for Discussion

1. Why is the public library usually accepted as an indispensable social institution in the community?
2. Enumerate the services the public library offers specifically to parents.
3. Evaluate the quality of children's books of today in contrast with those of a generation ago.
4. Discuss the cultivation of the reading habit.
5. In what ways is the children's librarian like a physician?
6. How does the library help train the child as an individual to accept his place in the community?
7. How can civic organizations encourage public interest in adequate library service?
8. What aid is provided by the state library agency for public libraries in your state?
9. How can a parent-teacher group in a rural area inaugurate public library service for children?
10. What steps are necessary to organize a P.T.A. study group on children's reading in the public library?

Related Reading References

- Becker, May Lamberton. *Adventures in Reading*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1927. Pp. viii, 248. \$2.00.
- Becker, May Lamberton. *First Adventures in Reading*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1936. Pp. xiv, 286. \$2.00.
- Dalglish, Alice. *First Experiences with Literature*. New Edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xviii, 162. \$1.50.
- Eaton, Anne T. *Reading with Children*. New York: Viking Press, 1940. Pp. 354. \$2.50.
- Fenner, Phyllis R. *"Our Library": The Story of a School Library That Works*. New York: John Day Co., 1942. Pp. ix, 174. \$1.75; Educational Edition, \$1.40.
- Frank, Josette. *What Books for Children?* New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1937. Pp. xvii, 363. \$2.00.
- Mott, Carolyn, and Baisden, L. B. *The Children's Book on How to Use Books and Libraries*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. 207. \$1.28.

CHAPTER VII

Questions for Discussion

1. What is a social welfare agency? What community agencies, often not thought of as social agencies, actually belong in this category?
2. How is the social welfare pattern of a community affected by (a) the geographic location of the community, (b) the size of the community, and (c) the economic character of the community?
3. Who are the people that need the social services? Who are the people that will supply them?
4. How shall we distinguish between the services the community may be expected to provide for *all* its citizens and the special services needed by *some* of its citizens? What are some examples of each?
5. What are the seven chief needs of children as outlined by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy?
6. If community welfare agencies handling the needs of children may be divided into three classes, those which provide economic assistance, those which deal with children's personal problems, and those which provide normal recreation, how would you classify the following agencies: (1) the free medical clinic; (2) the institution for care of orphans; (3) the free psychiatric clinic; (4) the juvenile court, (5) the settlement house; and (6) the boys' or girls' club?
7. Community welfare agencies that provide economic assistance may be divided into two classes, namely, those supported by the community (local, state, or national) and those privately supported. Can you give an example of each?

8. In what manner do the wide-range interests of the parent-teacher organization tie in with the work of community welfare agencies? Is this relation limited to some particular aspect or aspects of the work, or does it apply to all?
9. What is the role of the parent-teacher association in the development of public opinion concerning the need for and effective administration of community welfare agencies?
10. Why are parents and teachers the natural arbiters of questions that concern (1) the taxpaying citizen and (2) the welfare of children? How important is the coordination between these two elements?
11. What is the most important service that can be rendered by a coordinating council? Can the P.T.A. be of service in the formation of such a council?
12. Is the parent-teacher association a representative cross section of the nation's citizenry? Why?

Related Reading References

- Cadbury, Olive C. "Social Work in Seattle." Seattle: University of Washington, Graduate Division of Social Work, 1935.
- Colcord, Joanna C. *Your Community; Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare*. 2d Edition New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941. Pp. vi, 261. 85c.
- Klein, Philip, and others. *Social Study of Pittsburgh*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Pp. xxvi, 958. \$4.75.
- National Conference of Social Work. *Proceedings . . . Sixty-Ninth Annual Conference*, New Orleans, Louisiana, May 10-16, 1942.
- Social Work Year Book*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation. Issued biennially.
- White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *Children in a Democracy*. General Report, January 19, 1940. Washington, D. C.. Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. x, 86. 20c.
- White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *Final Report*. Washington, D. C.. Government Printing Office. Now in press.
- Community surveys. New York: The Community Chests and Councils, Inc.
- The Providence Survey.*
- The Hartford Survey.*
- The Stamford Survey.*

CHAPTER VIII

Questions for Discussion

1. Do you think there is a heightened national awareness of the need for character building? On what is this desire based?
2. What are some of the ways in which the activities of childhood and youth grow into the character of the mature man or woman? What

can be done to extend opportunities for character-building activities to all boys and girls, regardless of color, creed, or social status?

3. Is the building of character confined to the family, or is it also the concern of the community? If the latter, to what extent? Why?
4. What are some of the well-established general character-building organizations for youth, and what is the chief aim of each, in terms of character?
5. Can you describe some of the means and methods used by each of these groups to mold character?
6. What religious youth organizations can you mention? In what respects does their work differ from that of the general organizations just referred to?
7. What can be said of the character-building efforts of various patriotic, political, fraternal, and labor youth organizations?
8. What is being done for rural youth in this direction? Can you name two or three important youth organizations concerned with rural life and efficiency in terms of character building?
9. What are the commercial and service clubs doing for youth?
10. In your opinion, have the various leisure-time and recreational organizations a contribution to make to the upbuilding of stalwart character?
11. On what basis does the parent-teacher association cooperate with character-building agencies? What are its particular qualifications for the task?
12. Is the parent-teacher association in your community doing all that can be done to assist, both morally and through constructive service, the work of the character-building agencies? If not, what additional projects or activities can you suggest?

Related Reading References

- American Council on Education. American Youth Commission. *Youth and the Future*. General Report. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1942. Pp. xix, 296. \$2.50.
- Boettiger, Elizabeth F. *Your Child Meets the World Outside*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941. Pp. xvi, 179. \$2.00.
- Chambers, Merritt M. *The Community and Its Young People*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. 36. Paper, 15c.
- Chambers, Merritt M. *Youth-Serving Organizations; National Non-Governmental Associations*. 2d Edition. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xi, 237. \$2.50.
- Levy, John, and Munroe, Ruth. *The Happy Family*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1938. Pp. 319. \$2.75.
- Manwell, Mrs. Elizabeth M., and Fahs, Sophia L. *Consider the Children—How They Grow*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1941. Pp. x, 261. \$1.75.

Messick, John D. *Personality and Character Development*. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1939. Pp. 192. \$1.50.

Rainey, Homer P., and others. *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Pp. 186. \$1.50.

Slavson, Samuel R. *Character Education in a Democracy*. New York: Association Press, 1939. Pp. xii, 226. \$2 50.

CHAPTER IX

Questions for Discussion

1. Does your community have the benefit of a trained health officer employed on a full-time basis? What services are rendered by your health department?
2. How many public health nurses are employed in your community? How large is the population served by each nurse? What services are rendered by the public health nurses? Is nursing service provided for school pupils?
3. How many pupils are there in the elementary schools? In the high schools? Are health examinations given to high school pupils? To all entering school pupils? Are parents invited to be present for the examination of all entering school pupils?
4. Are there child health conferences? What provision is made in your community for the protection of preschool children by vaccination against smallpox and immunization against diphtheria? What proportion of preschool children have been protected?
5. What is the source of your water supply? How is it safeguarded? Has the water supply of your school been tested in a health laboratory?
6. What is the source of your milk supply? Is the milk safeguarded by pasteurization?
7. What plans have been made by your parent-teacher association to devote one or more programs each year to the subjects of personal and community health? Consult your health department and your tuberculosis association regarding motion picture exhibits and health literature that may be obtained for some of your meetings.
8. Does your public library have recently published books and pamphlets on child health, prenatal and infant care, safety, public health, and personal health?

Related Reading References

American Association of School Administrators. *Health in Schools*. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1942. Pp. 544. \$2.00.

The reader is referred to the health bulletins and pamphlets of the following agencies and organizations:

Local and state health departments

4-H clubs

Dairy and food councils

National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

United States Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

The American Social Hygiene Association, 1790 Broadway, New York

The American Medical Association, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago

The American Dental Association, 212 E. Superior St., Chicago

The National Safety Council, 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago

CHAPTER X

Questions for Discussion

1. Select one or two of the four objectives of education as outlined by the Educational Policies Commission and answer the question: What is the part of the home in achieving the objective?
2. How may the experiences a child has at home hinder his learning at school? Give some examples.
3. Can you show that it would be helpful if classroom teachers were familiar with the home environment of their pupils?
4. What are the benefits parents may derive from visiting school? What can a parent do when the adolescent says he doesn't want his parents to visit his school?
5. Why is it so important in a democracy that parents interest themselves in the qualifications of school board members?
6. Why is a small unit, such as a township or a district, unsatisfactory for taxing purposes? What is the situation with regard to the size of tax units in your state?
7. How much does your community spend per pupil per year? What do you think of the adequacy of this amount? Are you satisfied with the accomplishments of the children of your community?
8. What powers has your state legislature conferred on your community in the area of education? Do you think adequate powers have been granted, or have too many been granted?
9. How would you suggest that the parents of your community go about deciding whether a course in personal problems should be offered on the high school level?

Related Reading References

Almack, John C. *The School Board Member*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Pp. xii, 281. \$2.00.

American Council on Education. American Youth Commission. *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1940. Pp. 36. Paper, 25c; boards, 50c.

- American Council on Education. American Youth Commission. *Youth and the Future*. General Report. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1942. Pp. xix, 296. \$2.50.
- Bain, Winifred E. *Parents Look at Modern Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935. Pp. xiv, 330. \$2.50.
- Ellenwood, James L. *There's No Place Like Home; A Family Lives Together*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. Pp. xii, 234. \$2.00.
- Gruenberg, Sidonie M. *We, the Parents, Our Relationship to Our Children and to the World Today*. New York. Harper and Bros., 1939. Pp. xv, 296. \$2.50.
- National Education Association. Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1938. Pp. ix, 157. Boards, 50c.

CHAPTER XI

Questions for Discussion

1. How can your parent-teacher association stimulate its members to study the problems in your community?
2. What problems difficult to handle individually should become the concern of the group?
3. What techniques and materials are available for the solution of these problems?
4. To what extent do you employ the literature and services offered by your state university extension program? To what extent might you make use of them?
5. Should the adult education program be curtailed during the war? Should it be diverted into an organ for war propaganda? Or should it be intensified to determine the direction of effort after the war? What can your group do about it?
6. How does your parent-teacher association exercise its privilege of sharing the responsibility for the behavior patterns developed in your community?
7. Since crime and insanity take more of the individual taxpayer's money than does education, what is your group doing to determine the causes of crime and insanity? Do you leave such problems to the overworked researcher? What have unhappy homes to do with this? Can you mention any practical preventive measures?
8. If you believe that democracy is the best form of government, to what extent do you live it in your homes and expect it in your schools? Why is this active everyday interpretation of such vital importance today?
9. What can parent-teacher associations do to help develop and put into actual practice the ideal of true democracy for individuals? For homes? For schools? For communities?

Related Reading References

- Arlitt, Ada Hart. *Study Group Technics for Parent-Teacher Associations*. Chicago: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, c1942. Pp. 24. Secure through the office of the state congress.
- Gruenberg, Sidonie M. *Use of the Radio in Parent Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xviii, 95. 75c.
- Hill, Frank Ernest. *Listen and Learn*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1937. Pp. ix, 248. Boards, \$1.25.
- Johnson, Alvin Saunders. *The Public Library—A People's University*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938. Pp. ix, 85. Boards, \$1.00.
- Mumford, Lewis. *Faith for Living*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940. Pp. ix, 333. \$2.00.
- Overstreet, Harry Allen. *Let Me Think*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. 106. People's Library Edition, 1942, 75c.
- Overstreet, Harry Allen, and Overstreet, Bonaro Wilkinson. *Leaders for Adult Education*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941. Pp. x, 202. Boards, \$1.50.
- Sanderson, Dwight. *Leadership for Rural Life*. New York: Association Press, 1940. Pp. 127. \$2.00.
- Studebaker, John W., and Williams, C. S. *Education for Democracy; Public Affairs Forums*. Office of Education Bulletin 1935, No. 17. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. Pp. 74. 10c.

CHAPTER XII

Questions for Discussion

1. How would you go about discovering the needs of your community (a) for normal children, (b) for handicapped children?
2. Are services in the community interrelated or independent of one another? For instance, does improvement in the facilities for normal children tend to improve those for the handicapped? Why? How may unsuspected handicaps sometimes become apparent?
3. What are the essential features of a good program for all handicapped children?
4. Why is the correction of hearing and visual defects important for adjustment in school?
5. In meeting the needs of the handicapped, what would be the advantages of a program of periodic health examinations for children of all age groups?
6. How does the enforcement of compulsory education laws help handicapped and problem children?

7. Contrast the facilities of the small community with those of the large community. How are the needs of children in the small community to be met?
8. List a number of activities that a parent-teacher association can carry on for meeting the needs of handicapped and problem children, distinguishing between those appropriate for the local association or council and those appropriate for the state congress.
9. Why are surveys and facts of more value than mere words in directing attention to the problems of the community?
10. Outline a program for your community that will not only include your parent-teacher association but enlist the services of other organizations. Why are coordination and cooperation necessary?

Related Reading References

- Baylor, Edith M. H., and Monachesi, Elio D. *The Rehabilitation of Children*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1939. Pp. xii, 560. \$3.75.
- Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C. Order from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.
- Coordination of Effort for the Education of Exceptional Children*. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 7, 1935. Pp. 82 10c.
- The Deaf and Hard of Hearing in the Occupational World*. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 13, 1936. 15c.
- Parents' Problems with Exceptional Children*. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 14, 1932. Pp. 72. 15c.
- Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children*. Education Pamphlets, Nos. 40, 41, 49, 54, 55, 56, 1933-1940. 5c or 10c each.
- State Supervisory Programs for the Education of Exceptional Children*. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 6, 1940, Monograph 10. Pp. 92. 25c.
- Schroeder, Paul L., ed. *Child Guidance Procedures*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Pp. vi, 362. \$2.50.
- Thorndike, Edward Lee. *Human Nature and the Social Order*. Reissue. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xx, 1019. \$6.00.
- Thorndike, Edward Lee. *Your City*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939. Pp. 204. \$2.00.
- White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Dependent and Neglected Children*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933. Pp. xxvi, 439. \$3.00.
- White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *The Delinquent Child*. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xx, 499. \$3.50.
- White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted*. New York: Century Co., 1931. Pp. xxix, 604. \$4.00.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *Children in a Democracy*. General Report, January 19, 1940. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. x, 86. 20c.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *Final Report*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. Now in press.

CHAPTER XIII

Questions for Discussion

1. Is there a group or committee studying the opportunities for constructive social life for boys and girls in your community?
2. Has this group pointed out activities that may be dangerous for boys and girls and that should be controlled or eliminated?
3. What protective services are there in your community (1) to deal with conditions that may lead to antisocial behavior on the part of boys and girls or (2) to guide individual boys and girls toward wholesome social activities?
4. What child labor or youth employment problems have developed in your community? How have these problems been affected by the war situation? What attempts are being made to meet them?
5. Are children and youth combining school and work or going from school into full-time jobs under conditions harmful to the best interests of the nation? What activities should they undertake outside school hours as a contribution to the war program?
6. Is there adequate provision in your community for issuing employment and age certificates? Are these certificates carefully issued? Can they be obtained promptly, at any time, by all boys and girls entitled to them?
7. Are children and young persons working under hazardous or unhealthy conditions? If so, what can be done to prevent this?
8. What attention is being paid to insuring that a sufficient number of young people continue their education so that qualified technical workers and well-educated citizens will be available to finish the war and win the peace?
9. What can the parent-teacher association do (1) to integrate protective community services; (2) to lend support to the enforcement of child labor laws; and (3) to build up in boys and girls the sort of character that will aid them to discriminate against harmful amusements?

Related Reading References

- U. S. Department of Labor. Children's Bureau. Order from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. *Children Bear the Promise of a Better World—Our Nation Does Not Need Their Toil*. Defense of Children Series, No. 9. Pp. 10. \$3.00 per 100.

- Facts about Juvenile Delinquency, Its Prevention and Treatment.* Bureau Publication, No. 215. Revised Edition, 1935. Pp. 44. 5c.
- Guiding the Adolescent.* Bureau Publication, No. 225. 1933. Pp. 94. 10c.
- Policies on Recruitment of Young Workers for Wartime Agriculture.* March 1942.
- Ten Questions Answered about the Child-Labor Provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1939.* Folder, No. 26. 1941. Pp. 6. \$1.00 per 100.
- Welfare of Families of Sugar-Beet Laborers.* Bureau Publication, No. 247. 1939. Pp. 100. 15c.
- National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.
- Fuller, Raymond G. *Children in Strawberries.* Publication, No. 380. 1940. Pp. 22. 25c.
- Sidel, James E. *Pick for Your Supper; a Study of Child Labor among Migrants on the Pacific Coast.* Publication, No. 378. 1939. Pp. 7-67. 35c.
- A Summer in the Country* (Migratory child workers in New Jersey). Publication, No. 377. 1939. Pp. 5-39. 25c.
- Zimand, Gertrude F. *Child Workers in Wartime.* Publication, No. 386. 1942. Pp. 23. 10c.
- White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. *Children in a Democracy.* General Report, January 19, 1940. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. x, 86. 20c.
- Wrenn, Charles Gilbert, and Harley, D. L. *Time on Their Hands.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. 266. \$2.00.

CHAPTER XIV

Questions for Discussion

1. Under what conditions does play contribute to the development of desirable behavior?
2. Is it wise to encourage boys and girls of fifteen years and upward to have leisure-time interests in common?
3. What are the obstacles to community recreation in your community? How may they be overcome?
4. Does your community have a master plan governing the location and acquisition of schools, parks, playfields, and playgrounds? If not, in what ways are future needs being anticipated?
5. Is it true that an attractive social and recreational program in the country will keep the 'teen age group from running to town?
6. How practical is it for young people to organize and manage their own recreation?
7. In what ways is your school system preparing children for successful community life apart from breadwinning?

8. What are the qualifications of a good community center director, playground director, and club leader?
9. Are the agencies in your community that provide recreation competing with each other, or are they cooperating to see that those who most need opportunities are receiving them?
10. How much and how well are your existing recreation resources used? In what ways could their use be increased?
11. How do your public facilities and program compare with the standards set forth by the National Recreation Association? (See *Schedule for the Appraisal of Community Recreation.*)
12. Are the leisure activities in your community disciplining and strengthening our young people or softening them?

Related Reading References

The following publications may be obtained from the National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York:

- Bowers, Ethel, ed. Party booklets, series of three. \$1.00. (1) *Parties; Musical Mixers and Simple Square Dances*. Pp. 51. Paper, 50c. (2) *Parties; Plans and Programs*. Pp. 76. Paper, 50c. (3) *Parties for Special Days of the Year*. Pp. 60. Paper, 50c.
- Breen, Mary J. *Partners in Play*. New Edition, 1934. Pp. ix, 185. \$1.00.
- Games for Quiet Hours and Small Spaces*. Pp. 5-59. Paper, 50c.
- Ickis, Marguerite. *Crafts in Wartime*. Pp. 22. Paper, 35c.
- Lee, Joseph. *Play and Playgrounds*. 20c.
- List of Plays for Community Use*. Free.
- Pangburn, Weaver W. *Recreation, a Major Community Problem*. 15c.
- Recreation for Your Community*. Free.
- Rural and Small Community Recreation*. 50c.
- Zanzig, Augustus Delafield, ed. *Singing America*. Pp. 192. Paper, 25c.
- Nash, Jay B. *Building Morale*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1942. Pp. vi, 154. \$1.00.
- Planning Rooms for Some Activities of the Community High School. Office of Education Circular, No. 197. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. Pp. 21. Free.

CHAPTER XV

Questions for Discussion

1. How widespread in your community is the attitude that under modern conditions of life accidents cannot be prevented?
2. What is the annual number of home accidents in your community? School accidents? Industrial accidents? Public accidents?
3. What systematic safety programs are now in operation in the community? Who is sponsoring these programs? How many persons do they reach?

4. Are you acquainted with the programs and publications of state agencies (e.g., highway department) and national agencies (e.g., National Safety Council)?
5. How well developed is the local school system's safety program with respect to classroom instruction? Street safety? Playgrounds? Buses? Athletics and recreation? Building construction?
6. Do the local police department's activities include the making of records and spot maps of traffic accidents? Inspection of cars and licensing of drivers? Provisions for discovering drunken drivers and pedestrians?
7. To what extent are the public utilities (e.g., electric power companies) helping in the selection and maintenance of safe equipment in homes and schools?
8. What efforts are being made by local engineers, architects, and construction companies to provide homes, schools, and buildings designed to minimize hazards?
9. To what extent are the public officials (e.g., mayor) of the community systematically informing the people with respect to local hazards and the prevention of accidents?
10. What are the parents, particularly those enrolled in parent-teacher groups, doing to support the safety programs of the schools and other local agencies?

Related Reading References

(When writing to an organization named below, ask for a list of publications since the items suggested here are merely representative of the available materials.)

American Association of School Administrators. *Safety Education*. Eighteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1940. Pp. 544. \$2.00.

American Automobile Association. *Pedestrian Protection*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1939. Pp. 90. 50c.

National Board of Fire Underwriters. *Safeguarding the Home against Fire*. 85 John Street, New York: the Board. Pp. 95. Free.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Traffic Safety Education Project. *A Safety Manual for Parent-Teacher Associations*. 600 S. Michigan Blvd., Chicago: the Congress, 1941. Pp. 56.

National Conservation Bureau. *Creating Safer Communities*. 60 John Street, New York: the Bureau, 1937. Free.

National Education Association. Research Division. *Checklist of Safety and Safety Education*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1939. Pp. 30. 25c.

National Education Association. Research Division. *So You Are Parents?* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1941. Pp. 4. 5c; 6 for 25c.

- National Safety Council, Inc., *Safe at Home*. 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago: the Council, 1937. Pp. 24. 10c.
- National Safety Council, Inc. *The ABC's of Community Safety*. 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago: the Council. Pp. 8. Single copies free.
- Red Cross. United States. American National Red Cross. *Injuries in the Home and on the Farm*. Washington, D. C.: the Red Cross, 1936. Pp. 14. Free

CHAPTER XVI

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the essential difference between a cultural activity and any other activity? Is it possible for one activity to combine cultural and practical values?
2. What are the two principal kinds of nonutilitarian activities?
3. What objections may be made to "imported" culture? To cultural activities that call for merely passive participation?
4. Is a cultural event, such as a fine symphony concert, sufficient in itself, or has it a further function in the stimulation of local artistic talent?
5. What can be done, especially by parent-teacher groups, to encourage the full expression and fulfillment of local artistic talent in any field?
6. Should artistic education be confined to a strongly talented group, or should all children, even those with moderate or slight talent, be included in this type of training? Why?
7. What are the possibilities of the local community for developing a unique community culture of its own? Can the parent-teacher association help in this direction? How?
8. What is the place of craftsmanship in the field of general culture? Of dancing? What can be done to perpetuate the folk dances of different regions of our country?
9. Assuming that the three major fields of culture—graphic and plastic art, music, and literature—are most easily accessible to citizens of large metropolitan areas, is it possible to give access to these fields to persons living in outlying districts? What, if anything, has been done to solve this problem? What further possibilities can you suggest? What is the function of the parent-teacher association in this work?
10. In what way can a local publication—for instance, a weekly newspaper—contribute to the development of native culture and expression?
11. What are some of the important cultural values of dramatic presentations in the community, especially community pageants?
12. Considering the P.T.A. as a coordinator and integrator of community activities, how can this organization work to obtain fruitful interrelations in the community between the various cultural groups? What

contribution can it make to the awakening of cultural interests in children and adolescents?

Related Reading References

- Bryson, Lyman. *Adult Education*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. Pp. v, 208. \$2.00.
- Butler, George D. *Introduction to Community Recreation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1940. Pp. xiv, 547. \$3.50.
- Cole, Natalie Robinson. *Arts in the Classroom*. New York: John Day, 1940. Pp. 137. \$1.75.
- Goldstein, Harriet Irene, and Goldstein, Vetta. *Art in Everyday Life*. 3d Edition. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941. Pp. xxxvi, 497. \$5; Text Edition, 1940. \$3.75.
- Mearns, Hughes. *The Creative Adult, Self Education in the Art of Living*. New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1940. Pp. x, 300. \$3.00.
- Mumford, Lewis. *Faith for Living*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940. Pp. ix, 333. \$2.00.
- National Council of Teachers of English. *Experience Curriculum in English*. English Monograph, No. 4. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935. Pp. xx, 323. Paper, \$1.75.
- Thorpe, Margaret F. *America at the Movies*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939. Pp. xii, 313. \$2.75.

CHAPTER XVII

Questions for Discussion

1. What circumstances frequently prevent youth of large native capacity and ambition from entering vocations in which they would achieve great success? What should the state do for these youth?
2. Explain why the right kind of occupational survey is one of the best means of determining the kind of vocational training needed.
3. Has an adequate occupational survey been made of your community? Of your state? If not, what agency should make it?
4. Why should public employment agencies cooperate with schools and colleges in "matching youth and jobs"?
5. What are some of the major occupational trends of recent years?
6. What criteria should determine the types of vocational training offered in the local high school?
7. Is the demand for skilled workers increasing or decreasing? Give examples.
8. What agencies should be responsible for vocational training?
9. What are the dangers of narrow types of vocational education?

10. What responsibility should the P.T.A. assume for improving vocational education, guidance, and placement in your community?

Related Reading References

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CHAPTER XVIII

Questions for Discussion

1. In what way have the war and its attendant dangers affected community thought and human awareness?
2. Can you trace, briefly, the growth of the American community from its simplest pioneer form to the complex and highly organized form in which it exists today?

* A report to the American Youth Commission.

3. It is often said that the many agencies for public welfare create a new problem by their very existence. Do you agree with this? If so, what do you conceive the new problem to be?
4. What is involved in the coordination of various welfare activities and agencies for effective action? Has the parent-teacher association any share in the responsibility for such coordination? Any special aptitude? Why?
5. Is there a similarity between the relation of a child to his family and the relation of a welfare agency to the community? If so, in what does it consist? What conclusions may be drawn from this fact?
6. What is the idea set forth by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers of what constitutes an ideal community? What three fields of effort, broadly speaking, has the Congress accepted as its major areas of responsibility?
7. Can you outline the principles of parent-teacher endeavor with regard to (1) school education, (2) parent education, (3) community health, (4) economic security, (5) school legislation, (6) child labor, (7) vocational guidance, and (8) juvenile protection?
8. Can you mention at least three other fields of parent-teacher service?
9. What is the scope of the whole parent-teacher program? What is the central principle on which the whole program is based?
10. What qualifies the parent-teacher association as uniquely fitted for the tasks involved in carrying out its chosen program? What are the implications of parent-teacher service for the individual member? What, in turn, does this imply for our future citizenry, since the Congress already includes more than two and two-thirds million members and is steadily growing?

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CHAPTER XIX

Questions for Discussion

1. What community problems need immediate attention? Which is the most urgent?
2. Is your organization fitted to study and do something about this problem? Is it the only local organization so fitted, or is the task one that might be done with equal efficiency by some other community group?
3. What facts are necessary to understand this problem? How may they be obtained?
4. How will each set of facts contribute to an understanding of the problem?
5. What are the new ideas in education that are most promising for the better education of children?

6. Is your local school integrated into the life of the community? If not, what suggestions can you make for bringing about this integration?
7. What are the purposes and possibilities of a community survey?
8. What do the facts gathered by the survey mean?
9. What action follows logically from the interpretations?

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